THE

BRITISH CRITIC,

For JUNE, 1800.

Μία δ'οὐκ ἅπαντας ἄμμε θρέψει
Μιλίτα——. PINDAR.

No ſingle care can ev'ry mind employ.

ART. I. *A Voyage of Diſcovery to the South Pacific Ocean, and round the World; in which the Coaſt of North-Weſt America has been carefully examined, and accurately ſurveyed, undertaken by his Majeſty's Command; principally with a View to aſcertain the Exiſtence of any navigable Communication between the North Pacific and North Atlantic Oceans, and performed in the Years* 1790, 1791, 1792, 1793, 1794, *and* 1795, *in the Diſcovery Sloop of War, and Armed Tender, Chatham, under the Command of Captain George Vancouver. In Three Volumes.* 4to. 5l. 5s. Robinſons. 1798.

ACCIDENT, which no ſagacity could foreſee, nor diligence counteract, has delayed our notice of this important work beyond the ordinary period; but we are at length enabled to pay deliberate attention to its merit, and we pay it with pleaſure. The geographical diſcoveries and knowledge which have diſtinguiſhed the reign of George the Third, are beyond all parallel in ancient or modern times; nor would it be eaſy to do juſtice to the ſagacity which planned, the courage and perſeverance which accompliſhed, and the munificence which rewarded undertakings, whoſe importance and uſefulneſs will be the praiſe and admiration of poſterity. Antecedently to the

preſent reign, and indeed before the laborious voyages of the illuſtrious Cook, the North-Weſt Coaſt of America was very imperfectly known, and the idea greatly prevailed, handed down by tradition, and confirmed by prejudice, that a communication actually exiſted between the North Pacific and North Atlantic Oceans. To aſcertain this fact, of ſo much importance to ſcience and to commerce, was an undertaking ſurely not unworthy of this enlightened period, and of the preſent auſpicious reign. In the hiſtory of nations, it is no inconſiderable glory to have this truth well underſtood, and univerſally acknowledged, that the perſevering and indefatigable labours of Engliſhmen have changed doubt into certainty. It may now be aſſerted without reſerve, that no ſuch communication exiſts. Hearne's labours on one ſide of the American continent, of which an account was inſerted in the Britiſh Critic, vol. viii, p. 54, and the more recent inveſtigations of travellers on the other, place the matter, in our opinion, beyond all future controverſy. At the termination of the diſputes between this country and the court of Spain, on the ſubject of the territories of Nootka, Mr. Vancouver was the officer appointed to receive back that place which the Spaniards had ſeized. He was alſo directed to make an accurate ſurvey of the coaſt, from the 30th degree of north latitude, north-weſtward towards Cook's River, and generally to examine the natural and political condition of thoſe regions. Theſe volumes contain the deſcription of the accompliſhment of the above-mentioned objects. The author himſelf unfortunately died during the proceſs of preparing his work for publication; but his place has been ably ſupplied by his brother, who has proved himſelf fully adequate to the taſk he undertook. Captain Vancouver had himſelf written the whole narrative of the Voyage as far as Valparaiſo. The preſent editor had the taſk of preparing for the preſs the remainder of the journal, comprehending the paſſage round Cape Horn to St. Helena, and from thence to England.

The firſt book contains the tranſactions of the Voyage, from the commencement of the expedition to the arrival of the veſſels at Otaheite, and their departure from that place. This track has been ſo often purſued, that it does not ſeem neceſſary to detain the reader by any extract from this portion of the work. The ſecond book gives an account of the viſit of our countrymen to the Sandwich Iſlands, their proceeding to ſurvey the coaſt of New Albion, their tranſactions at Nootka, and their arrival at St. Franciſco. This part of the work is highly intereſting, and from this we ſhall accordingly give our firſt ſpecimen. The Straits of Juan de Fuca were the place, which

which for a long period was ſuppoſed to lead to a communication with the North Atlantic Ocean; Captain Vancouver accordingly entered the ſtrait, and accurately ſurveyed the coaſt on each ſide. The following is an account of the country and inhabitants at Port Diſcovery.

"Port Diſcovery, already mentioned as a perfectly ſafe and convenient harbour, has its outer points 1¼ miles aſunder, bearing from each other S. 63 W. and N. 63 E. its entrance is ſituated in latitude 48° 7′, longitude 237° 20¼, whence the Port firſt takes a direction S. 30 E. about 8 miles, and then terminates S. W. by W. about a league further; if it lies under any diſadvantage, it is in its great depth of water; in which reſpect however we found no inconvenience, as the bottom was exceedingly good holding ground, and free from rocks. Towards the upper part of the harbour it is of leſs depth; but I ſaw no ſituation more eligible than that in which the veſſels rode, off the firſt low ſandy point on the weſtern ſhore, about 4½ miles within the entrance. Here our wooding, watering, brewing, and all other operations were carried on with the utmoſt facility and convenience. The ſhores of Protection Iſland form on its ſouth ſide, which is about two miles long, a moſt excellent roadſtead, and a channel into Port Diſcovery, near two miles wide on either ſide without any interruption, which with other nautical particulars are exhibited in the chart. The country in the neighbourhood of this port may generally be conſidered of a moderate height, although bounded on the weſt ſide by mountains covered with ſnow, to which the land from the water's edge riſes in a pleaſing diverſity by hills of gradual aſcent. The ſnow on theſe hills probably diſſolves as the ſummer advances, for pine trees were produced on their very ſummits; on the ſea-ſhore the land generally terminated in low ſandy cliffs, though in ſome ſpaces of conſiderable extent it ran nearly level from high-water mark. The ſoil for the moſt part is a light ſandy loam, in ſeveral places of very conſiderable depth, and abundantly mixed with decayed vegetables. The vigour and luxuriance of its productions proved it to be a rich fertile mould, which poſſibly might be conſiderably improved, by the addition of the calcareous matter contained in the marrow-ſtone that preſented itſelf in many places. In reſpect to its mineral productions, no great variety was obſerved. Iron ore, in its various forms, was generally found, and from the weight and magnetic qualities of ſome ſpecimens, appeared tolerably rich, particularly a kind that much reſembled the blood-ſtone. Theſe, with quartz, agate, the common flint, and a great intermixture of other ſilicious matter (moſt of the ſtones we met with being of that claſs) with ſome variety of calcareous, magneſian, and argilaceous earth, were the mineral productions generally found.

"The parts of the vegetable kingdom applicable to uſeful purpoſes, appeared to grow very luxuriantly, and conſiſted of the Canadian and Norwegian hemlock, ſilver pines, the Turamahac and Canadian poplar, arbor-vitæ, common yew, black and common dwarf oak, American aſh, common hazel, ſycamore, ſugar, mountain and Penſylvanian maple, oriental arbutus, American alder, and common willow,

theſe with the Canadian elder, ſmall-fruited crab, and Penſylvanian cherry-trees, conſtituted the foreſts, which may be conſidered rather as encumbered than adorned, with underwood; although there are ſeveral places where, in its preſent ſtate, the traveller would paſs without being in the leaſt incommoded, excepting by the undecayed trunks of trees which had fallen. Of eſculent vegetables we found but few; the white or dead nettle, and ſamphire, were moſt common; the wild orache, vulgarly called fat-hen, with the vetch. Two or three ſorts of wild peas, and the common hedge muſtard, were frequently though not always met with, and were conſidered by us as excellent of their kinds, and ſerved to reliſh our ſalt proviſions, on which, with a very ſcanty ſupply of fiſh, all hands ſubſiſted. Amongſt the more minute productions Mr. Menzies found conſtant amuſement, and I believe was enabled to make ſome addition to the catalogue of plants.

"The knowledge we acquired of the animal kingdom was very imperfect. The ſkins of the animals already noticed, were ſuch as are commonly found amongſt the inhabitants on the ſea-coaſts under the ſame parallel, and towards Nootka; theſe were moſtly of the coarſer and more common ſorts. Garments of ſea-otter ſkins were not worn, nor did any ſuch ſkins appear amongſt the inhabitants. The only living quadrupeds we ſaw, were a black bear, two or three wild dogs, about as many rabbits, ſeveral ſmall brown ſquirrels, rats, mice, and the ſkunk, whoſe effluvia *was* the moſt intolerable and offenſive I ever experienced.

"Few of the feathered tribe were procured, although on our firſt arrival the aquatic birds were ſo numerous, that we expected a profuſe ſupply of wild fowl; but theſe were all ſo extremely ſhy and watchful, that our guns ſeldom reached them; and at being fired at they diſappeared. About the ſhores, and on the rocks, we found ſome ſpecies of the tern, the gull, ſea-pigeon of Newfoundland, curlews, ſand-larks, ſhags, and the black ſea-pye, like thoſe in New Holland and New Zealand; theſe were however not ſo abundant as the others. Nor did the woods appear to be much reſorted to by the feathered race, two or three ſpruce partridges had been ſeen, with few in point of number, and little variety of ſmall birds; amongſt which, the humming birds bore a great proportion. At the outſkirts of the woods, and about the water-ſide, the white-headed and brown eagle, ravens, carrion crows, American king's-fiſher, and a very handſome wood-pecker, were ſeen in numbers; and, in addition to theſe, on the low projecting points, and open places in the woods, we frequently ſaw a bird with which we were wholly unacquainted, though we conſidered it to be a ſpecies of the crane or heron; ſome of their eggs were found of a bluiſh caſt, conſiderably larger than that of a turkey, and well-taſted. Theſe birds have remarkably long legs and necks, and their bodies ſeemed to equal in ſize the largeſt turkey. Their plumage is uniformly of a light brown, and when erect, their height, on a moderate computation, could not be leſs than four feet. They ſeemed to prefer open ſituations, and uſed no endeavours to hide or ſcreen themſelves from our ſight, but were too vigilant to allow our ſportſmen taking them by ſurprize. Some blue, and ſome nearly white herons of the common ſize were alſo ſeen.

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"The ſea was not much more bountiful to us of its animal productions, than its ſhores. The ſcanty ſupply of fiſh we were enabled to procure, conſiſted in general of the common ſorts of ſmall flat fiſh, elephant fiſh, ſea bream, ſea perch, a large ſort of ſculpin, ſome weighing ſix or eight pounds, with a greeniſh colour about their throat, belly, and gills; theſe were very coarſe, but no ill effects were conſequent on eating them. The above, with a few trout, a ſmall ſort of eel extremely well taſted, of a yellowiſh green colour, were the fiſhes we moſt generally caught. A ſmall common black ſnake, a few lizards, and frogs, together with a variety of common inſects, none of which could be conſidered as very troubleſome, were the only creatures of the reptile tribe we obſerved.

"This country, regarded in an agricultural point of view, I ſhould conceive is capable of high improvement, notwithſtanding the ſoil in general may be conſidered to be light and ſandy. Its ſpontaneous productions in the vicinity of the woods are nearly the ſame, and grow in equal luxuriance with thoſe under a ſimilar parallel in Europe; favouring the hope, that if nutritious exotics were introduced, and carefully attended to, they would ſucceed in the higheſt degree. The mildneſs of the climate, and the forwardneſs of every ſpecies of plants, afforded ſtrong grounds in ſupport of this opinion.

The interruptions we experienced in the general ſerenity of the weather, were probably no more than were abſolutely requiſite in the ſpring of the year, to bring forward the annual productions. Theſe were attended with no violence of wind, and the rain which fell, although diſagreeable to travellers, was not ſo heavy as to beat down, and deſtroy the firſt efforts of vegetation. Under all theſe favourable circumſtances, the country yet labours under one material diſadvantage in the ſcarcity of freſh water. The ſtreams however that we met with, appeared ſufficient to anſwer all purpoſes in the domeſtic œconomy of life, to a very numerous body of inhabitants; and, were the country cleared and ſearched, there can be little doubt that a variety of eligible ſituations might be found for eſtabliſhments, where, with proper exertions, wholeſome water might be procured.

"What the low country before us towards the range of ſnowy mountains may produce, remains for future inveſtigation; but judging from what we had ſeen, it ſeemed more than probable, that thoſe natural canals of the ſea wind in various directions, and that they are capable of affording great advantages to commercial purſuits, by opening communications with parts of the interior country, commodiouſly and delightfully ſituated. The great depth of water may be offered as an inſuperable objection; yet, on a more minute examination, it is likely that many eligible and convenient ſtopping places might be found for the ſecurity of ſuch veſſels as would neceſſarily be employed in theſe occupations.

"Having conſidered with impartiality the excellencies and defects of this country, as far as came under our obſervation, it now remains to add a few words on the character of its inhabitants.

"None being reſident in Port Diſcovery, and our intercourſe with them having been very confined, the knowledge we may have acquired of them, their manners, and cuſtoms, muſt neceſſarily be very limited,

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and our concluſions drawn chiefly from compariſon. From New Dungeneſs we traverſed nearly one hundred and fifty miles of their ſhores without ſeeing that number of inhabitants. Thoſe who came within our notice ſo nearly reſembled the people of Nootka, that the beſt delineation I can offer, is a reference to the deſcription of thoſe people, which has before been ſo ably, and with ſo much juſtice given to the public*; the only difference I obſerved was, that in their ſtature they did not generally appear quite ſo ſtout; and in their habits were leſs filthy; for though theſe people adorn their perſons with the ſame ſort of paint, yet it is not laid on in that abundance, nor do they load their hair with that immenſe quantity of oil and colouring matter, which is ſo cuſtomary amongſt the people of Nootka; their hair as before-mentioned being in general neatly combed and tied behind.

"In their weapons, implements, canoes, and dreſs, they vary little. Their native woollen garment was moſt in faſhion, next to it the ſkins of deer, bear, &c. a few wore dreſſes manufactured from bark, which like their woollen ones were neatly wrought.

"Their ſpears, arrows, fiſh-gigs, and other weapons, were ſhaped exactly like thoſe of Nootka, but none were pointed with copper, or with muſcle-ſhell; the three former were generally barbed, and thoſe pointed with common flint, agate, and bone, ſeemed of their original workmanſhip. Yet more of their arrows were obſerved to be pointed with thin flat iron than with bone or flint, and it was very ſingular that they ſhould prefer exchanging thoſe pointed with iron to any of the others. Their bows were of a ſuperior conſtruction; theſe in general were from two and a half to three feet in length; the broadeſt part in the middle was about an inch and a half, and about three quarters of an inch thick, neatly made, gradually tapering to each end, which terminated in a ſhoulder, and a hook for the ſecurity of the bow-ſtring. They were all made of yew, and choſen with a naturally inverted curve ſuited to the method of uſing them. From end to end of the concave ſide, which when ſtrung became the convex part, a very ſtrong ſtrip of an elaſtic hide is attached to ſome, and the ſkins of ſerpents to others, exactly the ſhape and length of the bow, neatly and firmly fixed to the wood by means of a cement, the adheſive property of which I never ſaw, or heard of being equalled. It is not to be affected by either dry or damp weather, and forms ſo ſtrong a connection with the wood, as to prevent a ſeparation without deſtroying the component parts of both: the bow-ſtring is made with the ſinew of ſome marine animal, laid looſe in order to be twiſted at pleaſure, as the temperature of the atmoſphere may require, to preſerve it at a proper length. Thus is this very neat little weapon rendered portable, elaſtic, and effective in the higheſt degree, if we may be allowed to judge by the dexterity with which it was uſed by one of the natives at Port Diſcovery.

"We had little opportunity of acquiring any ſatisfactory information with regard to the public regulations or private œconomy of theſe people. The ſituation and appearance of the places we found them

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"* Vide Captain Cook's laſt Voyage."

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generally inhabiting, indicated their being much accuſtomed to a change of reſidence; the deſerted villages tended to ſtrengthen the conjecture of their being wanderers. Territorial property appeared to be of little importance; there was plenty of room for their fixed habitations; and thoſe of a temporary nature, which we now found them moſtly to occupy, being principally compoſed of croſs ſticks covered with a few mats, as eaſily found a ſpot for their erection, as they were removed from one ſtation to another, either as inclination might lead or neceſſity compel: and having a very extenſive range of domain, they were not liable to interruption or oppoſition from their few ſurrounding neighbours.

"From theſe circumſtances alone it may be ſomewhat premature to conclude, that this delightful country has always been thus thinly inhabited; on the contrary, there are reaſons to believe it has been infinitely more populous. Each of the deſerted villages was nearly, if not quite equal, to contain all the ſcattered inhabitants we ſaw, according to the cuſtom of the Nootka people; to whom theſe have great affinity in their perſons, faſhions, wants, comforts, conſtruction of theſe their fixed habitations, and in their general character. It is alſo poſſible that moſt of the clear places may have been indebted, for the removal of their timber and underwood, to manual labour. Their general appearance furniſhed this opinion, and their ſituation, on the moſt pleaſant and commanding eminences, protected by the foreſt on every ſide except that which would have precluded a view of the ſea, ſeemed to encourage the idea. Not many years ſince each of theſe vacant places might have been allotted to the habitations of different ſocieties, and the variation obſerved in their extent might have been conformable to the ſize of each village; on the ſite of which, ſince their abdication or extermination, nothing but the ſmaller ſhrubs and plants had yet been able to rear their heads.

"In our different excurſions, particularly thoſe in the neighbourhood of Port Diſcovery, the ſkull, limbs, ribs, and backbones, or ſome other veſtiges of the human body, were found in many places, promiſcuouſly ſcattered about the beach in great numbers. Similar relics were alſo frequently met with during our ſurvey in the boats; and I was informed by the officers, that in their ſeveral perambulations the like appearances had preſented themſelves ſo repeatedly, and in ſuch abundance, as to produce an idea that the environs of Port Diſcovery were a general cemetery for the whole of the ſurrounding country. Notwithſtanding theſe circumſtances do not amount to a direct proof of the extenſive population they indicate, yet, when combined with other appearances, they warranted an opinion, that at no very remote period this country had been far more populous than at preſent. Some of the human bodies were found diſpoſed of in a very ſingular manner. Canoes were ſuſpended between two or more trees about twelve feet from the ground, in which were the ſkeletons of two or three perſons, others of a larger ſize were hauled up into the outſkirts of the woods, which contained from four to ſeven ſkeletons covered over with a broad plank. In ſome of theſe, broken bows and arrows were found, which at firſt gave riſe to a conjecture that theſe might have been warriors, who, after being mortally wounded, had,

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whilſt their ſtrength remained, hauled up their canoes for the purpoſe of expiring quietly in them. But on a further examination this became improbable, as it would hardly have been poſſible to have preſerved the regularity of poſition in the agonies of death, or to have defended their ſepulchres with the broad plank with which each was covered.

"The few ſkeletons we ſaw ſo carefully depoſited in the canoes, were probably the chiefs, prieſts, or leaders of particular tribes, whoſe followers moſt likely continue to poſſeſs the higheſt reſpect for their memory and remains; and the general knowledge I had obtained from experience of the regard which all ſavage nations pay to their funeral ſolemnities, made me particularly ſolicitous to prevent any indignity which might be wantonly offered to their departed friends; baſkets were alſo found ſuſpended on high trees, each containing the ſkeleton of a young child; in ſome of which were alſo ſmall ſquare boxes filled with a kind of white paſte, reſembling ſuch as I had ſeen the natives eat, ſuppoſed to be made of the ſaranne-root; ſome of theſe boxes were quite full, others nearly empty, eaten probably by the mice, ſquirrels, or birds. On the next low point, ſouth of our encampment, where the gunners were airing the powder, they met with ſeveral holes in which human bodies were interred ſlightly covered over, and in different ſtates of decay, ſome appearing to have been very recently depoſited. About half a mile to the northward of our tents, where the land is nearly level with high-water mark, a few paces within the ſkirting of the wood, a canoe was found ſuſpended between two trees, in which were three human ſkeletons; and a few paces to the right was a cleared place of nearly forty yards round, where, from the freſh appearance of the burnt ſtumps, moſt of its vegetable productions had very lately been conſumed by fire. Amongſt the aſhes we found the ſkulls and other bones of near twenty perſons in different ſtages of calcination; the fire however had not reached the ſuſpended canoe, nor did it appear to have been intended that it ſhould. The ſkeletons found thus diſpoſed in canoes, or in baſkets, bore a very ſmall proportion to the number of ſkulls and other bones indiſcriminately ſcattered about the ſhores. Such are the effects; but of the cauſe or cauſes that have operated to produce them, we remained totally unacquainted; whether occaſioned by epidemic diſeaſe, or recent wars. The character and general deportment of the few inhabitants we occaſionally ſaw, by no means countenanced the latter opinion; they were uniformly civil and friendly, without manifeſting the leaſt ſign of fear or ſuſpicion at our approach; nor did their appearance indicate their having been much inured to hoſtilities. Several of their ſtouteſt men had been ſeen perfectly naked, and, contrary to what might have been expected of rude nations habituated to warfare, their ſkins were moſtly unblemiſhed by ſcars, excepting ſuch as the ſmall-pox ſeemed to have occaſioned; a diſeaſe which there is great reaſon to believe is very fatal amongſt them. It is not however very eaſy to draw any juſt concluſions on the true cauſe from which this havoc of the human race proceeded, which muſt remain for the inveſtigation of others who may have more leiſure, and a better opportunity to direct ſuch an inquiry; yet it may not be unreaſonable to conjecture, that the preſent apparent depopulation

tion may have ariſen in ſome meaſure from the inhabitants of this interior part having been induced to quit their former abode, and to have moved nearer the exterior coaſt, for the convenience of obtaining in the immediate mart, with more eaſe, and at a cheaper rate, thoſe valuable articles of commerce, that within theſe late years have been brought to the ſea-coaſts of this continent by Europeans and the citizens of America, and which are in great eſtimation amongſt theſe people, being poſſeſſed by all in a greater or leſs degree." P. 248.

The whole of this paſſage through the Straits of the Gulf of Georgia, Johnſtone's Strait, till they again came into the Great Pacific Ocean, through Charlotte's Sound, may be denominated original diſcovery, and has unequivocally aſcertained the fact, that the Straits of Fuca have no communication with the oppoſite ocean. On entering this ſea, after having traced and determined the " weſtern continental ſhore of North America, with all its various turnings, windings, numerous arms, inlets, creeks, bays, &c. from latitude 39° 5′, longitude 236° 36′, to Point Menzies in latitude 52° 18′, longitude 232° 55′," the voyagers proceeded in a ſoutherly direction along the coaſt to Nootka. With the following account of an Indian village in Johnſtone's Straits, we ſhall conclude for the preſent month.

" The next morning ſhewed the village in our neighbourhood to be large, and from the number of our viſitors it appeared to be very populous. Theſe brought us the ſkins of the ſea-otter, of an excellent quality, in great abundance, which were bartered for ſheet copper and blue cloth; thoſe articles being in the higheſt eſtimation among them. Moſt of theſe people underſtood the language of Nootka, though it did not appear to be generally ſpoken.

" The *Ty-eie*, or chief of the village, paid us an early viſit, and received from me ſome preſents which highly delighted him. I underſtood his name to be *Cheſlakees*. He acknowledged *Maquinna* to be a greater chief; as he alſo did *Wicananiſh*, but ſo far as I could learn he did not conſider himſelf to be under the authority of either.

" On enquiring if *Maquinna* was at the village, he anſwered in the negative, ſaying they ſeldom viſited, and that it was a journey of four days acroſs the land to Nootka Sound, which from hence towards the S. S. W. is about twenty leagues diſtant.

" Accompanied by ſome of the officers, Mr. Menzies, and our new gueſt, *Cheſlakees*, I repaired to the village, and found it pleaſantly ſituated on a ſloping hill, above the banks of a fine freſh-water rivulet diſcharging itſelf into a ſmall creek or cove; it was expoſed to a ſouthern aſpect, whilſt higher hills behind, covered with lofty pines, ſheltered it completely from the northern winds; the houſes, in number thirty-four, were arranged in regular ſtreets; the larger ones were the habitations of the principal people, who had them decorated with paintings and other ornaments, forming various figures, apparently the rude deſigns of fancy; though it is by no means improbable they might

might annex ſome meaning to the figures they deſcribed, too remote, or hieroglyphical, for our comprehenſion. The houſe of our leader, *Cheſlakees*, was diſtinguiſhed by three rafters of ſtout timber raiſed above the roof, according to the architecture of Nootka, though much inferior to thoſe I had there ſeen in point of ſize; the whole, from the oppoſite ſide of the creek, preſented a very picturesque appearance. On our landing, three or four of the inhabitants only came down to receive us at the beach; the reſt quietly remained near their houſes. Theſe, *Cheſlakees* informed me, were his near relations, who conſequently received, in the ſhape of preſents, compliments from me, with which they ſeemed greatly pleaſed.

"The houſes were conſtructed after the manner at Nootka, but appeared rather leſs filthy, and the inhabitants were undoubtedly of the ſame nation, differing little in their dreſs or general deportment. Several families lived under the ſame roof; but their ſleeping apartments were ſeparated, and more decency ſeemed to be obſerved, in their domeſtic œconomy, than I recollected to be the practice at Nootka. The women, who in proportion appeared more numerous, were variouſly employed; ſome in their different houſehold affairs, others in the manufacture of their garments from bark and other materials; though no one was engaged in making their woollen apparel, which I very much regretted. The fabrication of mats, for a variety of purpoſes, and a kind of baſket, wrought ſo curiouſly cloſe as to contain water like an earthen veſſel, without the leaſt leakage or drip, comprehended the general employment of the women, who were not leſs induſtrious than ingenious.

"As inquiries into the laudable ingenuity of others, are not to be ſatisfied in the civilized world without ſome expence, ſo inveſtigation of the like nature amongſt the uncultivated regions were not to be had in this ſociety without due acknowledgments, which were ſolicited by theſe female artiſans in every houſe we entered; and ſo abundant were their demands, that although I conſidered myſelf amply provided for the occaſion, with beads, hawks'-bells, and other trinkets, my box, as well as my pockets, and thoſe of the gentlemen who were of the party, were ſoon nearly empty. At the concluſion of this viſit, we were entertained at the houſe of an elderly chief, to whom *Cheſlakees* and every other perſon paid much reſpect, with a ſong by no means unmelodious, though the performance of it was rendered exceſſively ſavage by the uncouth geſtures and rude actions accompanying it, ſimilar to the repreſentations I had before ſeen at Nootka. The ſong being finiſhed, we were each preſented with a ſtrip of ſea-otter's ſkin, the diſtribution of which occupied ſome time; after this ceremony, a ſong from the ladies was expected; and, during this interval, I obſerved in the hands of the numerous tribe that now ſurrounded us, many ſpears pointed with iron, clubs, large knives, and other weapons, with which they were not furniſhed on our firſt approach to the village. I was not altogether ſatisfied with this change in their appearance, though I had every reaſon to believe their intentions were of the moſt inoffenſive nature, and that it was moſt probable they had thus produced their arms to ſhew their wealth, and to impreſs us with an idea of their conſequence; I deemed it however moſt adviſable to with-

withdraw, and, having distributed the few remaining articles we had reserved, *Chesiakees* was informed I was about to return; on which he, with his relations who had attended us through the village, accompanied us to the sandy island, whither I went to observe its latitude.

"Some few others of the Indians attended us on this occasion, whose behaviour being orderly and civil, they were permitted to assemble round me whilst observing; they were excessively amused with the effects of the sun's rays through the reading glass; and the extraordinary quality of the quicksilver used for the purpose of an artifical horizon, afforded them the greatest entertainment until our business was ended, when they in a very friendly manner took leave, and confirmed me in the opinion, that the martial appearance they had assumed was purely the effect of ostentation.

"In most of the houses were two or three muskets, which by their locks and mounting appeared to be Spanish; *Chesiakees* had no less than eight in his house, all kept in excellent order; these, together with a great variety of other European commodities, I presumed were procured immediately from Nootka, as, on pointing to many of them, they gave us to understand they had come from thence; and in their commercial concerns with us, they frequently explained that their skins would fetch more at Nootka than we chose to offer. Their total number we estimated at about five hundred. They were well versed in the principles of trade, and carried it on in a very fair and honourable manner. Sea-otter skins were the chief objects of our people's traffic, who purchased nearly two hundred in the course of the day. Mr. Menzies informed me that these had been procured at least an hundred per cent. dearer than when he visited the coast on a former occasion, which manifestly proved that either a surplus quantity of European commodities had been since imported into this country, or, more probably, that the avidity shewn by the rival adventurers in this commerce, and the eagerness of an unrestrained throng of purchasers from different nations, had brought European commodities into low estimation. Iron was become a mere drug, and when we refused them fire-arms and ammunition, which humanity, prudence, and policy directed to be with-held, nothing but large sheets of copper, and blue woollen cloth, engaged their attention in a commercial way; beads and other trinkets they accepted as presents, but they returned nothing in exchange.

"These were the principal circumstances that occurred to me in our short visit to this station. The farther and more general observations that fell under my notice, respecting the very extraordinary region we had lately passed through, and which were not noticed in the narratives of the several parties who were employed in exploring it, I shall now briefly state, with such reflections as are consequent thereon." P. 345.

The remaining parts of the Voyage, which abound with interesting matter, will afford us a pleasing subject for another article.

(To be concluded in our next.)

ART. II. *Thoughts upon a new Coinage of Silver, &c.* 8vo. 104 pp. 2s. 6d. Sewell. 1799.

ALTHOUGH we readily admit that this work oppoſes the plan for a new regulation of the ſilver coinage with the greateſt temperance, and is written in a ſtyle perfectly ſuited to the ſubject, yet the author has made himſelf the advocate of one party, not the judge of the merits of the caſe. Profeſſing in his Preface to give a ſelection of the arguments upon it, to be met with in the numerous works that have been publiſhed, relating to money, he confines himſelf to ſtate thoſe on one ſide only. The opinions of Dr. Adam Smith, and of Sir J. Steuart, which are in oppoſition to thoſe he maintains, we ſeek in vain in this eſſay; although the former contends, that a ſeignorage of 5l. per cent. * might very well have been reſerved by the ſtate, on the late recoinage of gold; which is the very reduction he controverts in reſpect to ſilver; and the latter, that the pound troy ſhould be coined into 63½ ſhillings†; while he recommends the weight of the guinea to be increaſed two grains and ¼.

Circumſtances having given to the queſtion here treated at leaſt great temporary importance, we ſhall offer ſome remarks on what we eſteem the leading errors of the opponents of the new ſilver coinage, as they appear in this eſſay. Silver is here made the ſtandard of value; by which that of every thing elſe, and even of gold is meaſured. That accounts were kept in ſilver, from a remote period of antiquity in Europe, and an arithmetical cuſtom continued, beyond the exiſtence of the cauſe (on which this author entirely builds) decides nothing upon the queſtion. Accounts of Roman money were kept in braſs, which was the original ſtandard metal. But, when by conqueſt the greater part of the precious metals and treaſures of Aſia was accumulated within the walls of Rome, braſs, though ſtill the nominal, ceaſed to be the real ſtandard; and thus ſilver alſo has here loſt the properties required for a ſtandard.

There is another erroneous principle, which tacitly pervades the whole of this tract, that no change ought ever to take place in the quantity of pure metal, contained in the guinea and the ſhilling. If this principle had been acted upon for the three laſt centuries, as the relative market value of ſilver to gold, accord-

* Wealth of Nations, v. ii, p. 338.
† Polit. Œconomy, v. ii, p. 35.

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ing to this writer's ſtate of facts, has fallen in the proportion of 15 to 10, or three to two very nearly; what confuſion and diſarrangement in all money tranſactions, muſt ſuch a perpetual obſtinate ſtruggle againſt the force of circumſtances have occaſioned? There is a *maximum*, beyond which the mint muſt not vary from the market; and if any diſproportionalities be ſuffered to take place between them, either by the force of things, or that of impolitic or fraudulent laws, the conſequences are equally bad to a nation. The mint muſt periodically vary, to follow the progreſs of the market, as ſoon as a difference of a certain magnitude has become eſtabliſhed between them. Difficulties will certainly ariſe on every ſuch operation; but if we decline to meet them, we ſubmit to protracted and increaſing ſufferings, only to encounter greater difficulties at the laſt.

In the year 1717, we reduced the guinea from 21s. 6d. to 21s. to approach nearer to the market proportion of the metals. All was not then done which was propoſed as neceſſary, by a very great authority, Sir Iſaac Newton. The expectation of a further change, was enough to ſet the ſpirit of ſpeculation at work; and this produced ſome confuſion in our money tranſactions; but no more than was laid to reſt, by a reſolution of the two houſes at their next meeting. This writer ſtates the preſent value of the pure metal in a guinea, in the European market, at 20s. 4d. or 61 groats; but its legal current value is 63 groats, or 21 ſuch ſtandard ſhillings, of which a pound troy of ſilver contains 62; if, therefore, a pound of ſilver were divided into $64\frac{1}{10}$ ſhillings, the pure metal in 21 ſuch ſhillings, would be of equal value in the market to the pure gold in the guinea. Such is the reduction wanted in the value of a ſhilling, to make its true value proportional to that of the guinea.

The preceding deductions have brought us ſo near to what we conceive to be the true mode of determining this point, that we ſhall proceed in the proceſs, ſtill making uſe of the *data* given us by this writer. In 1717, when the current value of the guinea was reduced to 21s. its intrinſic value was, as he ſtates, 20s. 8d. only; and now by the fall of the market for gold 20s. 4d. In 83 years it has fallen 4d. The inconveniences of the diſparity left in 1717 were tolerable; but they went on increaſing during the whole period; and let it now be ſuppoſed, that the initial diſparity is the greateſt degree of abertation of the mint from the market, which ought to be permitted to obtain. If then the proportion be exactly ſet right at this time, by coining the pound of ſilver into $64\frac{1}{10}$ ſhillings; and the guinea ſhould, in the next 83 years, loſe a

groat

groat in its value, another recoinage of the ſilver will become neceſſary. But the inconveniences of an equal and contrary diſparity to the former, will not exceed thoſe following it. That is, if the gold in the guinea be made a groat above the market value of the ſilver in 21 ſhillings, ſuch inconveniencies will not be greater than when it is as much below it. If, therefore, the ſilver equal in market value to the gold in a guinea, be at this time coined into $21\frac{1}{3}$ ſhillings, and the ſame variation of the market continue, the value of the two ſpecies will tend continually to proportionality; and, at the end of the firſt 83 years, the mint and market values of the two metals in the coin will be the ſame; from which point of time their values will begin to diverge; and the decrement of the value of gold continuing, until at the end of the ſecond term of 83 years, or to the 166th year from the recoinage, the guinea being now reduced in value to that of $20\frac{2}{3}$ ſuch ſhillings, a ſecond reformation of the coin will become neceſſary. Now the value of gold in a guinea being $20\frac{1}{3}$ of our preſent ſhillings as above, that of the ſilver in 21 ſhillings being to be taken one groat below it, muſt be made equal to what is contained in 20 ſhillings of the preſent ſtandard; or the pound troy of ſilver be coined into $65\frac{1}{10}$ ſhillings. It is however probable that the maximum of the aberration of the mint from the market, may be taken as high as 6d. in 21s.

Since the commencement of the miſerable ſcenes which have brought ſuch calamities on a great part of Europe, and ſcattered its emigrants over the other, gold has, in ſome periods, appeared to riſe in price compared with ſilver. It is by much the more convenient of the two metals to conceal, to be in readineſs for taking away, when the owner ſhall be obliged to fly to a foreign country; and the oppreſſors, from whom theſe emigrants fly, expecting their own turn in a ſhort period, copy their policy, and conceal a part of the product of their rapines. Thus the quantity in circulation is diminiſhed, and the demand increaſed. But a great part of this buried gold will come out again when ſociety ſhall be ſettled, and its rate will then fall; and if the hoards be many, the knowledge of which is buried with their murdered owners, the article of treaſure-trove will then have ſome effect on the market.

This author contends, that the reduction of the ſtandard of the ſilver will raiſe the price of every commodity; forgetting that it may be proved, on his own admiſſion, that the intrinſic value of the ſilver, in any nominal ſum of the new coinage, will exceed that in the ſame ſum of the preſent currency, by 20l. per cent. For the new ſilver, as he ſtates, will be in intrinſic value 5l. per cent. only below the preſent ſtand-

ard; and the deficiency of the preſent ſilver, he aſſerts to be 25l. per cent. as therefore the intrinſic value of the former will exceed the latter 20l. per cent. it can have none of the effects predicted. Having thus remarked the principal errors, in a tract written upon a ſubject very important to a commercial nation, we ſhall for the preſent take our leave of the enquiry.

ART. III. *A Tranſlation of the Table of Chemical Nomenclature, propoſed by De Guyton, formerly De Morveau, Lavoiſier, Bertholet, and De Fourcroy; with Explanations, Additions, and Alterations. To which are ſubjoined, Tables of ſingle Elective Attraction, Tables of Chemical Symbols, Tables of the preciſe Forces of Chemical Attractions; and Schemes and Explanations of Caſes of ſingle and double Elective Attractions. The Second Edition, enlarged and corrected.* 4to. 160 pp. 14s. Johnſon. 1799.

THE author of this work, as we learn from the ſignature to the Dedication, is Dr. Pearſon, well known for his chemical reſearches.

The firſt edition of this book was publiſhed about five years ago, and was intended as a ſyllabus or introduction to the new ſyſtem of chemiſtry, for the uſe of ſtudents. The work however having proved more extenſively uſeful than it was at firſt apprehended, Dr. P. was induced to publiſh the preſent enlarged edition, which indeed, conſidering the alterations and additions, rendering its bulk more than double to that of the former, may well be conſidered as a new and a very uſeful work.

The rapid progreſs which chemiſtry has made of late years, the introduction of a new general theory, and the adoption of a new nomenclature, have naturally been productive of much doubt and perplexity in the mind of the proficient chemiſt, as well as of the ſtudent. In this ſituation of things a proper ſtatement of the ſubject, a ſyſtematical arrangement of names, as alſo of facts, is the only guide which can lead the mind, eſpecially of the novice, through a ſafe path to the attainment of chemical knowledge.

"The arrangement," ſays this author, "of the ſyſtem of Nomenclature, diſplays an extenſive field of chemical attractions ſubſiſting between a great number of heterogeneous ſubſtances, and of courſe diſplays an arrangement of many chemical facts which it is not conceived could be learned in ſo ſhort a time in any other way. This view ſuggeſted, in the firſt place, the uſefulneſs of connecting with the table

table of nomenclature the order of theſe attractions, commonly called tables of ſingle elective attraction, according however to the new ſyſtem; with ſuch additions and alterations as the preſent ſtate of chemical ſcience would afford. 2dly. To give more preciſion, and for the demonſtration of compound attractions, it was judged neceſſary to give tables, denoting, as far as known, the preciſe forces of chemical attractions between different ſubſtances. 3dly. As belonging to the ſubject of attractions, it was deemed neceſſary alſo to exhibit a number of caſes of double elective attractions, with various methods of illuſtrating their mode of agency, and various methods of demonſtrating them. Elementary books appeared to be in no department ſo defective as in this; wherefore it was determined to treat fully of compound elective attractions. 4thly. For the ſake of brevity, and underſtanding ancient authors, the ſymbolical characters, in places of words, to denote ſubſtances, were conſidered to be alſo properly ſubjoined, from the three principal tables of them; viz. Geoffroy's, Bergman's, and Meſſrs. Haſſenfratz's and Adet's."

The contents of this work are, 1. Of the Table of Chemical Nomenclature, &c. 2. Of Mr. Keir's Strictures. 3. Of Dr. Prieſtley's Objections to the new Chemiſtry. 4. Of Dr. Dickſon and Mr Kirwan's Nomenclature. 5. Of erroneous Orthography, and unjuſt Proſody. 6. Of Elective Attractions and Chemical Symbols. 7. Explanations of ſingle and double Elective Attractions. 8. Of the Tables of ſingle Elective Attractions. 9. Mr. Kirwan's new Numerical Table. 10. Explanation of the Table of Symbols of Meſſrs. Hoſſenfratz and Adet; with additions and alterations of the editor.

With reſpect to the new chemical nomenclature, much has of late been ſaid in a great variety of publications; ſuch as the apparent neceſſity of a reformation of names, the advantages which may be derived therefrom, &c. Omitting therefore to take any further notice of the new names in particular, we ſhall proceed to point out ſuch alterations as Dr. P. has thought proper to make in the arrangement of the ſubſtances and the names, which are contained in the table of new chemical nomenclature.

This table, of which the firſt ſection contains an explanation, is printed on four ſheets, which are to be found at the end of the book. It is divided into ſix perpendicular columns, under the titles of, I. Simple or undecompounded Subſtances. II. Subſtances rendered into the State of Gas by means of Calorific. III. —— combined with Oxygen. IV. Oxygenated Subſtances in the Gas ſtate. V. Oxygenated Subſtances combined with Baſes. VI. Combinations of acidifiable Baſes, and of Subſtances not acidifiable.

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The ſubſtances in each of thoſe columns are expreſſed both in the old and in the newly adopted names.

In the firſt column of the original table, the number of ſimple ſubſtances is 55; but in this there are 63, nine new ſubſtances having been added; namely, the radicals Laccic, Suberic, Zoonic; Uranite, Titanite, Tellurite, Chromite; Jargonia, and Strontian; but the Lithic having been excluded.

The ſecond column contains only four ſubſtances; namely, oxygen gas, hydrogen gas, nitrogen gas, and vol-alkaline gas; there being only four ſpecies of the undecompounded bodies which are known to be convertible into the ſtate of gas by combination with calorific.

Of the acid ſubſtances, which are contained in the third column, the various degrees of oxygenation have been denoted by the reſpective terminations, *ous* and *ic*; and the greateſt degree by the epithet *oxygenated*, added to the acidifiable baſe. But inſtead of the laſt word, Dr. P. has adopted Mr. Kirwan's abbreviation *oxy*, which is prefixed to the baſe; thus, *oxymuriatic acid* is ſaid inſtead of *oxygenated muriatic acid*, &c.

With reſpect to the fifth column, this author obſerves, that

"as each of the unmetallic acids, which are at leaſt in number 38 (produced by the oxygenation of the 32 acidifiable baſes) and the four metallic acids, may be united with each of the metallic oxydes (of which there are about 30 ſpecies already known) and certainly with five or ſix of the earths, and with the three alkalies; and as ſome of the acids may produce different compounds according to the proportions in which they unite; and as alſo ſome of the acids may produce compounds by uniting with two or perhaps more baſes, it will appear plain, that if the names of the whole of theſe ſpecies had been inſerted, this column would have been extended to a moſt inconvenient length, and have rendered the table very coſtly. Accordingly, in the original table, a few inſtances only of the names of theſe ſpecies are inſerted; but in the preſent table the denominations of the genera only are ſet down, with their definitions, becauſe it was once propoſed to have a ſeparate table for the ſpecies belonging to this part of the fifth column. It is preſumed, however, from the very ſimple method of naming employed, that the ſtudent will find no difficulty to form the terms of the ſpecies from thoſe of the genera ſet down in this table, and of the particular baſes in the firſt column."

The ſixth column, under the title of *Combinations of acidifiable Baſes, and of Subſtances not acidifiable*, contains the combinations of the ſubſtances of the firſt column with one another, but independently of oxygen and of calorific. The known combinations of this ſort are, I. Of the Radicals of Acids, and of theſe with other ſubſtances. II. Of the Metals with one another.

" The above ſix columns," obſerves Dr. P. " into which the table of the new chemical nomenclature is divided, comprehend the names of all the known ſpecies of *ſimple bodies*, and of all the genera, and many of the ſpecies of compound ſubſtances which are at this period pretty certainly known, that is, which have been demonſtrated both by analyſis and ſyntheſis. But there is a number of ſubſtances of a compound nature which have not been compounded by uniting the bodies which they yield on decompoſition, and therefore the compoſition of theſe bodies is conſidered to be imperfectly known. In general alſo, they can only be produced by *vital*, and not by *chemical* powers; as animal muſcles, blood, vegetable mucilage, gum, farina, eſſential oil, &c. Theſe compound bodies all combine, without decompoſition, with certain other ſubſtances; but the nature of theſe combinations, and the chemical properties of theſe compound bodies which enter into theſe combinations, have not been thoroughly and extenſively inveſtigated. It was probably from theſe conſiderations that the nomenclators thought it beſt to arrange theſe ſubſtances together at the foot of the table of ſix columns, under the title of *Denominations of divers more compound ſubſtances, many of which combine without decompoſition.* It may be proper to notice that theſe ſubſtances, at the foot of the table, are but a ſmall proportion of the different kinds of the products. I have added ſeveral which I thought moſt worthy to be known, viz. Oil, Uric Oxide, Caoutchouc, Tannin, Colouring Matters, Sweet Æther, Oil of Wine.

" Theſe ſubſtances are principally animal and vegetable ſolids and fluids, which readily afford mucilaginous ſolutions in water; and undergo the putrefactive fermentation, by which they are reſolved into gaſes, or ſubſtances capable of becoming gaſes. Many of theſe ſubſtances are alſo oils; and others, as alcohol, æther, and oil of wine, are the products only of the vinous fermentation.

" The compoſition ſhown by analyſis of theſe ſubſtances appears to be a combination of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and oxygen; and in ſome of them other ſubſtances are contained, as phoſphorus and ſulphur. But the compoſition by ſyntheſis not being confirmed, it muſt be conſidered as not certainly known." P. 59.

After the explanation of the table, &c. this author proceeds to examine Mr. Keir's ſtrictures on the new ſyſtem of chemiſtry and the new nomenclature. In this examination he diſplays a conſiderable degree of acuteneſs, and a proper diſcrimination; clearly proving the impropriety of ſeveral of Mr. Keir's expreſſions. It may however be remarked, that as Mr. Keir's ſtrictures were publiſhed in the year 1790, when a ſyſtem of chemiſtry, totally new in theory and in language, was juſt announced to the world, it is not to be wondered that a very able chemiſt, like Mr. Keir, long verſed in the old ſyſtem, ſhould refuſe his immediate aſſent to it, and ſhould be induced to uſe the ſtrong language in which he expreſſed his thoughts.

In the third ſection this author examines *Dr. Prieſtly's objections to the new doctrines of chemiſtry.*

Amongſt

Among the moſt able philoſophers of the preſent age, Dr. Prieſtley has appeared to be one of the greateſt adherents to the old phlogiſtic ſyſtem of chemiſtry, as is manifeſted by divers of his recent publications. Dr. Pearſon collects his ſcattered objections to the new doctrine, and anſwers them with propriety.

In the next ſection Dr. Pearſon expreſſes his reaſons for preferring, upon the whole, the nomenclature of the Pariſian academicians, to that which was propoſed by Dr. Dickſon, with the approbation of Mr. Kirwan.

This is followed by a ſhort note, containing ſome inſtances of (what this author juſtly calls) erroneous chemical orthography, and unjuſt proſody.

In the next three ſections, Dr. P. treats of elective attractions in general, and particularly explains the nature of ſingle, double, triple, &c. elective attraction; illuſtrating the caſes by means of examples. Here alſo the various tables of affinities are properly noticed; together with the ſymbols, which for the ſake of brevity have been uſed by different authors, to denote not only the various ſubſtances, but likewiſe the operations of chemiſtry.

In the account of thoſe particulars; in the diſcrimination of what may be proper to be adopted, from what ſhould be rejected, this author diſplays his extenſive hiſtorical knowledge of the ſubject; he reaſons with propriety, and in mentioning the names of ſeveral philoſophical chemiſts, he pays that tribute of praiſe which is due to their merits. But while upon the whole we thus expreſs our approbation of the work, we might wiſh that an introduction like this had not been encumbered with controverſial ſubjects, which generally tend to perplex the ſtudents, for whoſe uſe this book is principally intended. We cannot therefore help thinking, that if Dr. P. had reſerved his diſcuſſions for another publication, and in the preſent he had briefly arranged the new ſyſtem of chemiſtry, or its elementary part, in a more regular manner, he might have rendered it, in a greater degree, uſeful and acceptable to novices.

Beſides the table of chemical nomenclature, this work contains ſeveral other uſeful tables, of which we ſhall merely ſubjoin the titles; referring our readers to the work itſelf for explanations, &c.

Table of ſymbols uſed by Geoffroy to denote chemical ſubſtances.

Symbols uſed by Bergman for the ſame purpoſe.

New chemical characters, deviſed in 1787, by Meſſrs. Haſſenfratz and Adet, to repreſent the ſubſtances contained in their nomenclatural tables.

Table of precipitations, apparently by ſingle elective attractions, from Bergman, with alterations and additions by the author. No. I. and II.

Dr. Cullen's Caſes of double Elective Attraction.

Table VII. No. I. Quantity of baſes taken up by 100 grains of each of the three foſſil acids; as determined by Mr. Kirwan. No. II. Chemical attraction of the Calces, or metallic oxydes, to the deficient part of their phlogiſton, and the affinity of three foſſil acids to ſeveral calces; as determined by Mr. Kirwan. No. III. Mr. Guyton de Morveau's table of attractions.

Repreſentations of ſingle elective attractions by means of Brackets; and

Table IX. which exhibits various caſes of compound attraction.

"For the benefit of thoſe who wiſh to poſſeſs two ſets of tables, and the conveniency of purchaſers of the former edition, theſe tables may be had ſeparately from the reſt of the work."

ART. IV. *Genealogical Hiſtory of the Stewarts, from the earlieſt Period of their authentic Hiſtory to the preſent Times. Containing a particular Account of the Origin and ſucceſſive Generations of the Stuarts of Darnley, Lennox, and Aubigny, and of the Stuarts of Caſtlemilk; with Proofs and References; an Appendix of relative Papers; and a Supplement, containing Copies of various Diſpenſations found in the Vatican at Rome, in the Courſe of a Search made by the Author in the Year 1789; particularly Copies of Two very intereſting Diſpenſations which had been long ſought for in vain, relating to Robert, the Stewart of Scotland (King Robert II.) his much conteſted Marriages with Elizabeth More and Euphemia Roſs. To which is prefixed, a Genealogical Table relative to the Hiſtory. By Andrew Stuart, Eſq. M. P.* 4to. 468 pp. 1l. 10s. Strahan, and Cadell and Davies. 1798.

ART. V. *Supplement to the Genealogical Hiſtory of the Stewarts, with Corrections and Additions: and containing Anſwers to an Anonymous Attack on that Hiſtory, publiſhed at Edinburgh in February, 1799, under the Title of "the Genealogical Hiſtory of the Stewarts refuted." By Andrew Stuart, Eſq. M. P.* 4to. 106 pp. 6s. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

THE minute, laborious, and frequently intricate reſearch, required in genealogical enquiries, effectually prevents it from being in favour with that large majority of the reading world, which

which is indolent and superficial. Yet the history of a family, so conspicuous in its native country as that of the Stuarts, must be compiled with singular infelicity, if it involve not much matter extremely curious to the antiquary, and important to the statesman. Of the work before us, it would be extreme injustice not to say that it offers one of the most remarkable examples we have ever seen, of patience, caution, and candour. Mr. A. Stuart falls into no antiquarian reveries; he makes no attempt to trace back his family beyond the region of authentic record; he asserts nothing without a document in proof; and though in the point chiefly contested he takes a side, his candid mode of stating all that can be alledged on either hand, is equalled only by his openness and fairness in communicating every discovery he made in the progress of his enquiries, to those who were naturally interested in supporting the opposite opinion. The general question, which of two families (that of Lord Galloway, or that of the Stuarts of Castlemilk) is more nearly related to the Royal House of Stuart, involves at this moment nothing but the personal honour accruing from the connection. Neither territorial nor titular advantage can be derived from the decision; concerning which, as a point undoubtedly of great obscurity, various persons will think differently; and very probably in proportion to their connection with one or the other family. Our endeavour shall be to state the allegations on both sides, with as much clearness as we can; giving alternately the opinions of Mr. A. Stuart, and those of his opponents.

According to the first party, Sir William Stewart of Jedburgh, or Jedworth, acknowledged by both parties to have been the undoubted ancestor of the Earl of Galloway, was the same person with Sir William Stewart de Foresta, who was executed on pretence of treason against the King of England (whose subject he had at one time been, or was pretended to have been) in the year 1402, having been taken prisoner at the battle of Homildon.

According to the second, Sir William Stewart, of Jedworth, was the same person with Sir William Stewart of Castlemilk, the second son of Sir Alexander Stewart, of Darnley, which Sir William was killed during the siege of Orleans in the year 1429. This Sir William had two sons, the eldest of whom, John, having married the heiress of the Stewarts of Dalswinton, by whom he obtained a great estate, the lands of Castlemilk became the property of the second son, William. John was the ancestor of the Earls of Galloway, and William was the ancestor of the present family of Castlemilk.

According to Mr. Stuart, that John Stewart of Castlemilk, mentioned in a charter, and supposed to have been the Earl of Galloway's

Galloway's anceſtor, muſt have been called of Caſtlemilk, from his reſiding at that place, not from his being in poſſeſſion of the eſtate; and the William Stewart, of Caſtlemilk, mentioned in a ſubſequent charter, was the very firſt mentioned Sir William, of Caſtlemilk, and not his ſecond ſon.

It is acknowledged by both parties, that Sir Alexander Stuart, of Derneley, or Darnley, married Janet Keith, daughter of Sir William Keith, of Galſton, which Janet had children by a former huſband, of the name of Hamilton.

It is alledged by Mr. S. that this lady was not the Janet Keith who had been married to Sir David Hamilton, of Cadzow, but another Janet Keith, who had been married to another perſon of the name of Hamilton; becauſe the dates make it impoſſible that the widow of Sir David Hamilton, of Cadzow, could have been the mother of Sir John Stewart, of Derneley, and of Sir William Stewart, of Caſtlemilk; whereas, in a charter granted by the Janet Keith, wife of Sir Alexander Stewart, of Dernely, to one of her ſons of the former marriage, ſhe calls John Stewart, of Cruikſton (which is Derneley) filius meus.

It is alledged by the oppoſite party, that the Janet Keith, who married firſt Sir David Hamilton, of Cadzow, was the ſame perſon who was afterwards married to Sir Alexander Stewart, of Darnley, and therefore could not, as the former allows, have been the mother of Sir John Stewart, of Derneley, but calls him her ſon becauſe he was her huſband's ſon; and that this explains why the mother of Sir William Stewart, Lord Galloway's anceſtor, appears to have been of the name of Turnbull, not Keith, which is one of the arguments uſed by Mr. S. to prove that Sir William Stewart, of Jedburgh, or Jedworth, Lord Galloway's undoubted anceſtor, was not the ſame perſon with Sir William Stewart, of Caſtlemilk, but was the ſame perſon with Sir William Stewart de Foreſta.

Mr. S. alledges, that the Earl of Galloway is not deſcended from the Houſe of Derneley, or Lennox, but from a quite different branch of the Stewarts.

His opponents produce a patent from King James I. of Great Britain, dated in the year 1609, which is granted to Lord Galloway's anceſtor, for the expreſs reaſon of his being deſcended from the moſt noble Houſe of Lennox; whence it is argued, in ſupport of Lord Galloway's claim, that the date of this patent being nearer, by a hundred and ninety years, to the time when Sir John Stewart, of Darnley, lived, than the preſent time is, it is not to be imagined that his Majeſty and his Privy Council for Scotland, could have been ſo far miſtaken or impoſed upon, as to declare in a deed under the great ſeal, that

a perſon was deſcended from the Houſe of Lennox, his own paternal family, unleſs that perſon's pedigree had been well known. It is further argued, that as Sir Alexander Stewart, of Garlies, took his ſeat among the Lords of parliament, together with Matthew, Earl of Lennox, which appears by the regiſters of parliament for the years 1560 and 1565, and gave his vote for the bond, by which the nobility* engaged to protect the Prince, afterwards King James VI. it cannot rationally be ſuppoſed, that the pedigree of a perſon of ſuch conſideration was unknown further back than five or ſix generations, in a country where the rank of families depended ſo much on their deſcent, as it then did in Scotland; and where people of all claſſes were genealogiſts, as they ſtill are in ſome parts of that country.

Without attempting to decide upon a queſtion of ſo much intricacy, we cannot heſitate to recommend the Genealogical Hiſtory here noticed, as a very uncommon ſpecimen of careful and judicious inveſtigation; and a work doing great honour at once to the abilities, and the moral integrity of the very reſpectable author.

ART. VI. *The Farmer's Boy: A rural Poem. In Four Books. By Robert Bloomfield. With Ornaments, engraved in Wood, by Anderſon.* 8vo. 5s. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

IF this Poem be conſidered as the production of an uninſtructed and unaſſiſted author, without even the ordinary aids of education and improvement, it muſt unqueſtionably be termed a great and extraordinary curioſity. If viewed with a ſevere and critical eye, various errors and defects will frequently preſent themſelves; but there is certainly much poetical feeling, many accurate and intereſting deſcriptions, a warm and

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* This may require ſome explanation to an Engliſh reader. Every perſon poſſeſſing a barony of the extent of a hundred marks (now from four to ſix thouſand pounds a year) was obliged by the Scotch ſtatutes to appear perſonally in parliament, and was a hereditary Lord of parliament by tenure. Until the acceſſion of King James VI. to the throne of England, there is no inſtance of the creation of Lords by patent. The quality of nobility depended upon deſcent, as is ſtill the caſe in moſt countries of Europe.

vigorous

vigorous imagination, and verſification far more melodious and happy, than could poſſibly have been expected from a writer of very limited reading, and from a poet of very little experience. His father, as appears from the Preface, written by Mr. Capel Loft, who undertook the care of editing this performance, was a taylor, his mother a ſchoolmiſtreſs; he conſequently was ſoon taught to read. He, however, never went to any ſchool after he was ſeven years old. When he was eleven he became a Farmer's Boy; how long he continued in this ſituation we are not informed; but, on finding that he was not likely to get his living by hard labour, an uncle, Mr. G. Bloomfield, a journeyman ſhoemaker, took him under his care, and he was accordingly removed to Bell-Alley, Coleman-Street. At this place he read newſpapers, attended a meeting-houſe, a debating-ſociety, and became a poet. In conſequence of a combination among the journeymen ſhoemakers, the tumult of which he wiſhed to avoid, he again viſited the farmer with whom he formerly had lived, and qualified himſelf in a reſidence of two months, amidſt rural ſcenery, to become the writer of the Farmer's Boy. The plan he has purſued, was obviouſly and confeſſedly ſuggeſted by Thompſon's Seaſons. The Poem conſiſts of Four Books, to which the names of the ſeaſons are ſeverally prefixed. The writer's obſervations will not be found to have been very extenſive; but they have the merit of great accuracy, and he appears to have attended to many minute circumſtances of rural ſimplicity, which would probably have eſcaped a loftier and more capacious mind. The Firſt Book contains a deſcription of ſeed-time, harrowing, morning walks, milking, the dairy, Suffolk cheeſe, of ſheep and lambs. The deſcription of morning is very agreeable; but we prefer, as a ſpecimen, what he ſays of ſheep and lambs at play.

" Here then, my ſoul, thy darling theme purſue,
For ev'ry day was Giles a SHEPHERD too.
Small was his charge; no wilds had they to roam,
But bright encloſures circling round their home;
Nor yellow-bloſſom'd furze, nor ſtubborn thorn,
The heath's rough produce, had their fleeces torn;
Yet ever roving, ever ſeeking thee,
Enchanting ſpirit, dear Variety!
Oh, happy tenants, priſoners of a day!
Releas'd to eaſe, to pleaſure, and to play;
Indulg'd thro' ev'ry field by turns to range,
And taſte them all in one continu'd change.
For though luxuriant their graſſy food,
Sheep long confin'd but loathe the preſent good;
Inſtinctively they haunt the homeward gate,
And ſtarve, and pine, with plenty at their feet.

Loos'd

Loos'd from the winding lane, a joyful throng,
See, o'er yon paſture, how they pour along!
Giles round their boundaries takes his uſual ſtrole,
Sees ev'ry paſs ſecur'd, and fences whole;
High fences, proud to charm the gazing eye,
Where many a neſtling firſt aſſays to fly;
Where blows the woodbine, faintly ſtreaked with red,
And reſts on ev'ry bough its tender head;
Round the young aſh its twining branches meet,
Or crown the hawthorn with its odours ſweet.
Say, ye that know, ye who have felt and ſeen
Spring's morning ſmiles, and ſoul enliv'ning green,
Say, did you give the thrilling tranſport way?
Did your eye brighten when young lambs at play
Leap'd o'er your path with animated pride,
Or gaz'd in merry cluſters by your ſide?
Ye who can ſmile, to wiſdom no diſgrace,
At the arch meaning of a kitten's face;
If ſpotleſs innocence, and infant mirth,
Excites to praiſe, or gives reflection birth:
In ſhades like theſe purſue your fav'rite joy,
'Midſt nature's revels, ſports that never cloy.
A few begin a ſhort but vigorous race,
And indolence abaſh'd ſoon flies the place.
Thus challeng'd forth, ſee thither one by one,
From ev'ry ſide, aſſembling playmates run;
A thouſand wily antics mark their ſtay,
A ſtarting croud impatient of delay,
Like the fond dove, from peaceful priſon freed,
Each ſeems to ſay, come, let us try our ſpeed.
Away they ſcour, impetuous, ardent, ſtrong,
The green turf trembling as they bound along;
Adown the ſlope, then up the hillock climb,
Where ev'ry mole-hill is a bed of thyme;
There panting ſtop, yet ſcarcely can refrain,
A bird, a leaf, will ſet them off again.
Or if a gale, with ſtrength unuſual blow,
Scatt'ring the wild-brier roſes into ſnow,
Their little limbs increaſing efforts try,
Like the torn flower, the fair aſſemblage fly.
Ah, fallen roſe! ſad emblem of their doom,
Frail as thyſelf, they periſh while they bloom.
Tho' unoffending innocence may plead,
Tho' frantic ewes may mourn the ſavage deed;
Their ſhepherd comes, a meſſenger of blood,
And drives them bleating from their ſports and food.
Care loads his brow, and pity wrings his heart,
For lo! the murd'ring butcher with his cart,
Demands the firſtlings of the flock to die,
And makes a ſport of life and liberty."

The

The Second Book, on Summer, opens with a deſcription of turnip ſowing, of the ripening of wheat, of ſparrows, inſects, the ſky-lark, reaping, the harveſt field, dairy-maid, labours of the barn, the garden, night, a thunder-ſtorm, harveſt-home, and concludes with reflections of a melancholy caſt, and not altogether juſt; and which indicate, that the author received ſome impreſſions, probably at the debating-ſociety, of a queſtionable kind. The following paſſage, however, is highly pleaſing.

" Shut up from broad rank blades that droop below,
The nodding WHEAT-EAR forms a graceful bow;
With milky kernels ſtarting, full weigh'd down,
Ere yet the ſun hath ting'd its head with brown.
Whilſt thouſands in a flock for ever gay,
Loud chirping ſparrows welcome in the day;
And from the mazes of the leafy thorn,
Drop one by one upon the bending corn.
Giles with a pole aſſails their cloſe retreats,
And round the graſs-grown dewy border beats;
On either ſide, compleatly overſpread,
Here branches bend, there corn o'ertops his head:
Green covert hail! for thro' the varying year,
No towns ſo ſweet, no ſcene to him ſo dear.
Here wiſdom's placid eye delighted ſees
His frequent intervals of lonely eaſe;
And with one ray his infant ſoul inſpires,
Juſt kindling there her never dying fires;
Where ſolitude derives peculiar charms,
And heav'n-directed thoughts his boſom warms.
Juſt where the parting bough, light ſhadows play,
Scarce in the ſhade, nor in the ſcorching day;
Stretch'd on the turf he lies, a purpled bed,
Where ſwarming inſects creep around his head.
The ſmall duſt-colour'd beetle climbs with pain,
O'er the ſmooth plantain-leaf, a ſpacious plain,
Thence higher ſtill, by countleſs ſteps convey'd,
He gains the ſummit of a ſhiv'ring blade,
And flirts his filmy wings, and looks around,
Exulting in his diſtance from the ground.
The tender ſpeckled moth here dancing ſeen,
The vaulting graſshopper of gloſſy green;
And all prolific Summer's ſporting train,
Their little lives by various pow'rs ſuſtain.
But what can unaſſiſted viſion do?
What but recoil where moſt it would purſue;
His patient gaze but finiſh with a ſigh,
When muſic waking ſpeaks the ſkylark nigh.
Juſt ſtarting from the corn ſhe cheerly ſings,
And truſts with conſcious pride her downy wings,
Still louder breathes, and in the face of day
Mounts up, and calls on Giles to mark her way.

Cloſe

Cloſe to his eyes his hat he inſtant bends,
And forms a friendly teleſcope, that lends
Juſt aid enough to dull the glaring light,
And place the wandering bird before his ſight;
Yet oft beneath a cloud ſhe ſweeps along,
Loſt for a while, yet pours her varied ſong.
He views the ſpot, and as the cloud moves by,
Again ſhe ſtretches up the clear blue ſky;
Her form, her motion, undiſtinguiſhed quite,
Save when ſhe wheels direct from ſhade to light,
The flutt'ring ſongſtreſs a mere ſpeck became;
Like fancy's bubbles floating in a dream,
He ſees her yet, but yielding to repoſe,
Unwittingly his jaded eyelids cloſe.
Delicious ſleep! From ſleep who could forbear,
With no more guilt than Giles, and no more care?
Peace o'er his ſlumbers waves her guardian wing,
Nor Conſcience once diſturbs him with a ſting;
He wakes refreſh'd from ev'ry trivial pain,
And takes his pole and bruſhes round again."

The parts which we moſt approved in the third book, were the deſcription of the Village Meeting in the church-yard on the ſabbath day, the Mad Girl, and the concluſion. The Mad Girl, though a trite ſubject, is dexterouſly managed, and exhibits ſome good poetry. The Village Meeting on a Sunday is very picturesque.

" Nor his alone the ſweets of eaſe to taſte,
Kind reſt extends to all ſave one poor beaſt,
That true to time and pace is doom'd to plod,
To bring the paſtor to the houſe of God.
Mean ſtructure, where no bones of heroes lie,
The rude inelegance of poverty
Reigns here alone; elſe why that roof of ſtraw,
Theſe narrow windows, with the frequent flaw,
O'er whoſe low cells the dock and mallow ſpreads,
And rampant nettles lift their ſpiny heads,
Whilſt from the hollows of the tow'r on high,
The grey-cap'd daws in ſaucy legions fly.
Round theſe lone walls aſſembling neighbours meet,
And tread departed friends beneath their feet,
And new brier'd graves that prompt the ſecret ſigh,
Show each the ſpot where he himſelf muſt lie.
Midſt timely greetings village news goes round,
Of crops late ſhorn, or crops that deck the ground;
Experienc'd ploughmen in the circle join,
While ſturdy boys, in feats of ſtrength to ſhine,
With pride elate their young aſſociates brave,
To jump from hollow-ſounding grave to grave;

Then

Then close conſulting, each his talent lends
To plan freſh ſports when tedious ſervice ends.
Hither at times, with cheerfulneſs of ſoul,
Sweet village maids from neighb'ring hamlets ſtroll,
That like the light-heel'd Does o'er lawns that rove,
Look ſhyly curious, ripening into love;
For love's their errand, hence the tints that glow
On either cheek an heightened luſtre know,
When conſcious of their charms, ere age looks ſhy,
And rapture beams from youths obſervant eye."

We think the concluſion of this book has conſiderable merit, and well deſerves inſertion.

" In ſafety hous'd throughout night's length'ning reign,
The cock ſends forth a loud and piercing ſtrain,
More frequent as the glooms of midnight flee,
And hours roll round that bring him liberty.
When ſummer's early dawn, mild, clear, and bright,
Chas'd quick away the tranſitory night,
Hours now in darkneſs veil'd, yet loud the ſcream
Of geeſe, impatient for the playful ſtream,
And all the feather'd tribe impriſon'd, raiſe
Their moaning notes of unharmonious praiſe,
And many a clamorous hen, and cockrel gay,
When daylight ſlowly thro' the fog breaks way,
Fly wantonly abroad; but ah! how ſoon
The ſhades of twilight follow hazy noon,
Short'ning the buſy day, day that ſlides by
Amidſt th' unfiniſh'd toils of huſbandry,
Toils ſtill each morn reſum'd with double care,
To meet the icy terrors of the year,
To meet the threats of Boreas undiſmay'd,
And Winter's gathering frowns and hoary head.
Then welcome cold, welcome ye ſnowy nights,
Heav'n midſt your rage ſhall mingle pure delights,
And confidence of hope the ſoul ſuſtain,
While devaſtation ſweeps along the plain;
Nor ſhall the child of Poverty deſpair,
But bleſs the pow'r that rules the changing year,
Aſſur'd tho' horrors round his cottage reign,
That Spring will come, and Nature ſmile again."

The Fourth Book, or Winter, is perhaps of ſomewhat leſs intereſt than the preceding, and contains fewer circumſtances of obſervation on ruſtic ſcenery and incidents. The farm-houſe fire-ſide is an excellent ſubject, and might have admitted greater dilatation. The nightly care of the ſtable is well managed, and the contraſt between the plough-horſe and the poſt-horſe, does much credit to the author's heart.

" Short-

" Short-ſighted DOBBIN, thou canſt only ſee
The trivial hardſhips that encompaſs thee,
Thy chains were freedom, and thy toils repoſe,
Could the poor POST-HORSE tell thee all his woes,
Shew thee his bleeding ſhoulders, and unfold
The dreadful anguiſh he endures for gold;
Hir'd at each call of buſineſs, luſt, or rage,
That prompt the traveller on from ſtage to ſtage,
Still on his ſtrength depends their boaſted ſpeed,
For them his limbs grow weak, his bare ribs bleed;
And tho' he groaning quickens at command,
Their extra ſhilling in the rider's hand
Becomes his bitter ſcourge—tis he muſt feel
The double efforts of the laſh and ſteel;
Till when up-hill the deſtin'd inn he gains,
And, trembling under complicated pains,
Prone from his noſtrils darting on the ground,
His breath emitted floats in clouds around,
Drops chaſe each other down his cheſt and ſides,
And ſpatter'd mud his native colour hides;
Thro' his ſwoll'n veins the boiling torrent flows,
And ev'ry nerve a ſep'rate torture knows.
His harneſs loos'd, he welcomes eager ey'd
The pail's full draught that quivers by his ſide,
And joys to ſee the well-known ſtable door,
As the ſtarv'd mariner the friendly ſhore.
Ah! well for him if here his ſuff'rings ceas'd,
And ample hours of reſt his pain appeas'd;
But rous'd again, and ſternly bade to riſe,
And ſhake refreſhing ſlumber from his eyes,
Ere his exhauſted ſpirit can return,
Or thro' his frame reviving ardour burn,
Come forth he muſt, tho' limping, maim'd, and ſore,
He hears the whip—the chaiſe is at the door;
The collar tightens, and again he feels
His half-heal'd wounds inflam'd, again the wheels
With tireſome ſameneſs in his ears reſound,
O'er blinding duſt, or miles of flinty ground;
Thus nightly robb'd, and injur'd day by day,
His piece-meal murd'rers wear his life away."

After the above favourable ſpecimens it would be vain, and indeed uncandid, to detract from the praiſe we have already given this performance, by ſpecifying inſtances of error in ſtyle, language, and occaſionally of grammar. It may be ſufficient to ſay, that the Poem, conſidering the circumſtances of its production, has afforded us much gratification. We muſt not however conclude without obſerving, that the manuſcript was reviſed by Mr. Capel Loft, who alſo made incidental corrections in orthography and grammatical conſtruction.

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As the writer ſtill purſues the humble occupation of a journeyman ſhoe-maker, we truſt that this volume will meet with ſufficient encouragement to enable him both to proceed in the cultivation of his intellectual talents, and finally enlarge and extend the comforts of his life. Juſtice requires us to add, from the account given of him, that he is remarkable for "mildneſs of temper, and goodneſs of diſpoſition; that he is univerſally praiſed for the beſt of huſbands, an indulgent father, and a quiet neighbour. He is about thirty-two years old, and has three children."

ART. VII. *Literary Antiquities of Greece, &c. By the Rev. Philip Allwood, A. M.*

(Continued from our laſt, p. 594.)

HAVING in our laſt month's examination of this work given an extract from it, which we were obliged to contract and mutilate; in juſtice to an author who has taken an uncommon range of literature, to inſtruct and improve the public, we wiſh now to give one, that ſhall exhibit him in his full dimenſions. We therefore ſelect the following remarks, upon the ancient hiſtory of the Egyptians.

"Their hiſtory, at a period of very remote antiquity, perhaps not more than three centuries and a half after the flood, is obſcurely hinted at in the account of the firſt Titanian war*. Theſe Titans were a colony of Cuthites, who, driven from Babylonia at the time of the diſperſion, invaded Egypt, and eſtabliſhed at Memphis the firſt ſovereignty which had ever exiſted in that country†. This was an event, which muſt certainly have taken place within the courſe of two centuries, after the Mizraim had poſſeſſed themſelves of that region by the right of patriarchal allotment: and the true character of this people, at that early period, will be beſt determined from the great facility, with which they were ſubjugated to the Cuthite dominion. Manethon, who was an Egyptian, who wrote under the auſpices of Ptolemy Philadelphus, and had therefore every inducement to give as favourable an opinion as he poſſibly could, of the proweſs and vigour of his countrymen, even

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"* See Mr. Bryant's Analyſis of Heathen Mythology, vol. iii, p. 233, in the arrival of the Titans in Egypt; and alſo vol. iii, p. 71, of the ſame work, article, Wars of the Titans

"† Manetho, ſpeaking of theſe ſhepherds, ſays, "at length they made one of themſelves king, whoſe name was Salatis; he dwelt at Memphis, and made both the upper and lower regions tributary to him." Joſeph. contra Appion. lib. i."

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he nevertheleſs has been obliged to acknowledge, that they ſeized the country without difficulty, and without even the riſk of a battle*. Yet, to excuſe as far as he could the baſeneſs of this ſubmiſſion, he imputes the whole circumſtance to the effects of the divine indignation; telling us (in the ſame place) that he "knew not why, but in the days of King Timaus, it pleaſed the deity to viſit his country with the blaſt of his diſpleaſure, when on a ſudden a large body of obſcure people from the eaſt invaded it," &c.

"Their mode of living, however, ſince they had become the inhabitants of Egypt, bears every mark of a ſimplicity and rudeneſs, which barred the poſſibility of any effectual reſiſtance. They confined themſelves to the narrow ſtrip of land, which is incloſed by the mountains bordering on each ſide upon the Nile, and extending through the whole length of Upper Egypt. They do not appear to have ever attempted the cultivation of the lower region†, which was in after-times a prodigy of fertility. Agriculture was an art, which ſeemed to them entirely unknown. Their diet conſiſted chiefly of the Lotos of the Nile, and the herb Agroſtis‡. Their habitations were humble ſheds, which were thatched with the flags of the river. Their clothing was compoſed of the ſkins of beaſts. And their ſituation was ſuch, as apparently cut them off from every connection with the reſt of mankind, and, conſequently, from all the means of improvement.

"Such, there is every reaſon to believe, was the rude and barbarous ſtate of this people, when the Titans firſt came among them. The laſt were a very ingenious and enterpriſing people; a people, who were always confident of their own ſuperiority, and could ill brook a competition with the other poſterity in the line of Shem and Japhet; who were therefore the firſt rebels after the flood againſt the ordinations of heaven, and the firſt diſturbers of the peace of mankind. They were the firſt, who, launching out of the common track marked out for them by their fore-fathers, eſtabliſhed the worſhip of the ſolar orb; giving themſelves ſuch denominations, derived from the attributes of fire, as effectually diſtinguiſhed them from the profeſſors of every other religion. One of their titles was Titanes, which is evidently a derivative from Tit-ain-es, that is, *the Mount of the Fountain of Light;* and their temples were ſtately edifices erected in Chaldæa firſt, and afterwards in Lower Egypt, upon mounds of earth. From Titanes and Titanis the Greeks have derived Τιτὰν, and the Latins Titan; and it is remarkable, as well as a ſtriking proof, that Titanes was only an appellation, which they had given themſelves as worſhippers of the ſun, that Virgil, who,

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"* Joſephus contra Appion. lib. i. ῥᾳδίως καὶ ἀμαχητὶ τὴν χώραν εἷλον.

"† Lower Egypt was then a ſwamp. See Herodot. lib. ii. c. 4, 15.

"‡ See the account which Diodorus has given of this people, before the reign of Oſiris, or the time of the firſt Cuthite colony which ſettled in Egypt. Vol. i, pages 17, 18. See alſo pages 52, 53, 54. of the ſame work, edit. Weſſeling."

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in one place, has repreſented the Titans as ſhut up in the diſmal cells of Tartarus, has in another applied this very epithet to the illuſtious GOD of Day.

> In nemus ire parant, ubi primos craſtinus ortus
> Extulerit Titan, radiiſque retexerit orbem*.

"How therefore Manethon could term this "an obſcure race of men," το γενος ασημοι, which he does in the paſſage already alluded to†, it is difficult to conceive; unleſs, actuated by a national vanity, he intended it as a contraſt to the ſplendour of Egypt in after-times. But thus much ſeems to be certain, that the foundation of all the greatneſs which afterwards characterized the Egyptian nation, was originally laid in the dominion of theſe uſurpers.

"Their very oppreſſion, becauſe it was extreme, obliged the unhappy ſufferers to exert themſelves in the cauſe of liberty; they tried their ſtrength in frequent conteſts with their invaders; and theſe conteſts, though in general deſtitute of ſucceſs, taught them at length the art of war, and the way to victory. Though they were treated in a tyrannical and cruel manner, yet their country was greatly improved; and the lower part of it had, by draining, become one of the moſt beautiful provinces upon earth. They ſaw in every ſucceeding generation, the foundation of ſome new cities, and the erection of ſome additional temples. They perceived, that every public movement was conducted by ſyſtem; and learnt, that different orders of men in a ſtate were abſolutely neceſſary both for its preſervation and proſperity. Thus, having acquired the arts of war and civil policy, having made conſiderable improvement in the learning of the times, and enriched themſelves with the knowledge which their conquerors had the honour of inventing, and introducing among them, they found themſelves able, after a ſubjection of about two hundred and eighty years, to regain poſſeſſion of their country in its improved ſtate, and to eſtabliſh a ſovereignty of their own.

"The Cadmians, who ſettled themſelves in Bœotia, were the firſt Cuthite colony which had emigrated from Egypt. They came from Thebes in Upper Egypt, and founded a city in Greece, to which they affixed the ſame name; intending, no doubt, in ſo doing, to perpetuate the memory of a place, where they had acquired their earlieſt and greateſt renown. The Cecropians, the Danaïdæ, and other colonies from Egypt, followed their route, and planted themſelves in Attica, Argos, and other diſtricts in the ſame quarter. Theſe were the people, to whom the Mizraim were ſo greatly indebted; and to whoſe departure ſucceeded their period of glory. Hence it appears that Greece, no leſs than Egypt, was chiefly under obligations to them for the introduction of thoſe arts, which afterwards contributed to render her more illuſtrious than her neighbours. In particular, they imported many of the hieroglyphical characters, which they had been in the habit of uſing in Egypt; and theſe conſtitute the principal letters in the Greek alphabet, as it ſtands at the preſent time. They were certainly of this na-

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"* Virgil's Æneid, lib. iv, v. 119. † See p. 362."

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ture; for their forms, their moſt ancient forms eſpecially, bear a very ſtriking analogy to the names by which they are ſtyled; and may eaſily be traced, in the manner and cuſtoms of the early inhabitants of Egypt.

"It is probable that the day of proſperity, which now roſe on Egypt, did not continue long unclouded. It commenced about one thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty-three years before the Chriſtian æra: and, in the five hundred and ſeventy-third year before the ſame æra, that country was ſubdued by the arms of Nebuchadnezzar. It had then finally cloſed. But, during the intervening ſpace of one thouſand one hundred and fifty years, there were many ſtorms which obſcured the political hemiſphere of the Egyptians, and reduced them gradually to a ſtate of weakneſs. To this period I would refer, as far as there is any truth in them, thoſe dynaſties which have been the ſubject of ſo much controverſy: yet I cannot help expreſſing a belief, that, from the abdication of the ſhepherds till the overthrow of Pharaoh and his hoſt in the Red Sea, Egypt was under the dominion of one ſovereign; but that, after that time, it became ſplit into ſeveral principalities or ſeparate juriſdictions. Such an event as this muſt have occaſioned great commotions in the land, and would be very likely to produce ſuch an effect. I cannot find any place for theſe dynaſties, before this time; and here was a ſufficient ſpace for many of them. That the accounts concerning them ſhould be much exaggerated and miſrepreſented in later times, there can be no wonder; as they were originally written in hieroglyphical characters." P. 361.

When we ſelected this extract at firſt, we ſelected it merely becauſe it was ſhort, becauſe we could therefore give it unmutilated, and thus exhibit Mr. Allwood in his natural appearance as an author. We particularly wiſhed to ſhow the ſtreſs which he lays upon his etymologies. This indeed we might invidiouſly have ſhown, or might ſtill ſhow, in a ſtronger degree of light, with a fuller accompaniment of etymons. But, from reſpect to the author, we forbear. Nor ſhould we have done more in the preſent month, reſerving ſome hiſtorical objections for the next, than have added another extract equally unmutilated, but of a different complexion, if, in tranſcribing the extract above, we had not found ourſelves compelled to make ſome objections to it.

The mode of reaſoning adopted by the author, near the cloſe of this paſſage, ſeems a little ſtrange to our minds. Egypt's day of proſperity, after the departure of the Cuthites, he ſays, "did not continue *long* unclouded." In proof of this aſſertion, he produces the conqueſt of Egypt by Nebuchadnezzar, eleven hundred and fifty years afterward. Then it "finally cloſed." But in the long interval, he adds, it had many ſtorms. What theſe were, he tells us not. Only he would inſert in it ſome diſputed Dynaſties, "as far as there is any truth in them."

them." And he finally conjectures Egypt to have been broken into ſeveral principalities, "by the overthrow of Pharaoh and his hoſt in the Red Sea." Thus the interval is filled up with mere ſhades of facts; and the "probability" of Egypt's day being not "long unclouded," is proved for a period of 1150 years, by conjectures of facts that commence we know not when, or by ſuppoſitions of incidents that conclude we know not where. In the ſame manner, he wonders at Manetho calling thoſe an ignoble race of men, whom he (Mr. Allwood) conſiders as at once his own Cuthites and his own Titans; merely becauſe he conceives his Titans to be a race of heroes. Yet, all the while, Manetho knows nothing of either the Titans or Cuthites of this author, and ſpeaks only of his Shepherd-kings. Mr. A. writes merely from the colour of his own ideas, and then ſeems to wonder that Manetho does not ſpeak from the ſame notions.

Nor was "the firſt ſovereignty which had ever exiſted in that country" of Egypt, one which was erected by Mr. Allwood's Cuthites or Titans. The aſſertion is in the very face of hiſtory. Yet we believe it to be common to numbers of our writers. Authors often compoſe ſyſtems of hiſtory, without any attention to the facts of it. Mr. Allwood has done ſo here.

"At the time of the departure of the children of Iſrael out of Egypt," ſays he, "their ſojourning, as dated from the call of Abraham*, is ſaid to have been four hundred and thirty years†."

And, as he afterwards adds (p. 544) we muſt reckon

"the ſum of about fifteen years, for the time that intervened between the abdication of the Cuthite and the arrival of the Iſraelitiſh ſhepherds, as alſo the ſum of two hundred and eighty-four years for the reſidence of the Cuthites in that country."

Yet, long before this period for the very *arrival* of the Cuthites, do we actually find the ſame unity of empire, and the ſame ſingleneſs of ſovereignty in Egypt, as we have already found in the days of Joſeph. How the notice concerning this has eſcaped the eyes of the preſent author, or others, we pretend not to conjecture. But that it has eſcaped them, appears from the only records of thoſe early ages. "*Abram*," as the Hebrew hiſtorian tells us, "went down into *Egypt* to ſojourn there; for the famine was grievous in the land" of Canaan, as afterwards in this land, and equally with all the world, while

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"* Geneſis, ch. xii, ver. 1—4. † Exod. ch. xii, ver. 40."

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from the overflow of the Nile *then* there was plenty in the land of Egypt.

"And it came to paſs, that when Abram was come into *Egypt*, the Egyptians beheld the woman, that ſhe was very fair. The PRINCES alſo of PHARAOH ſaw her, and commended her before PHARAOH; and the woman was taken into PHARAOH's houſe.—And the Lord plagued PHARAOH and his houſe with great plagues, becauſe of Sarai Abram's wife. And PHARAOH called Abram, and ſaid, What is this that thou haſt done unto me? Why didſt thou not tell me that ſhe was thy wife? Why ſaidſt thou, She is my ſiſter? ſo I might have taken her to me to wife: now therefore behold thy wife, take her, and go thy way."

We thus ſee a plurality of wives, at this very early period, aſſumed by the kings of Egypt; yet with an utter abhorrence in the kings themſelves, of taking the wife of another for one of theirs. "And PHARAOH commanded his men concerning him, and they ſent him away, and his wife, and all that he had*." In this ſhort view of the country, we find a court of Princes, and a throne of Royalty, Princes ſurrounding a Monarch, and a palace incloſing a ſeraglio. Nor do we find *more* appearances of royalty afterwards, even when a ſovereignty is ſaid to have been ſome time erected there by the Cuthites; when "Joſeph was brought down to Egypt, and Potiphar, an officer of PHARAOH, captain of the guard, bought him of the hands of the Iſhmaelites, which had brought him down thither;" when "the butler of THE KING OF EGYPT, and his baker, had offended their lord THE KING OF EGYPT;" and when on "the third day, which was PHARAOH's birth-day,—he made a feaſt unto all his ſervants†."

But we have an objection ſtill ſtronger to this extract, even to the whole of the Cuthite hiſtory in it. It is all founded upon the evidence of Manetho, plainly erroneous as it is; and upon ſome miſtakes of the author himſelf, which attention readily detects. We refer not to critics, either modern or ancient, for their opinions of Manetho. We refer only to Manetho himſelf, and then appeal to our readers at once.

"We learn from Manetho," Mr. Allwood has ſaid before, "that the Cuthite ſhepherds were ſucceeded in Egypt by another race of ſhepherds; and he diſtinguiſhes them by the title of *Captives*, under which we eaſily recognize the deſcendants of Jacob, who were enſlaved in Egypt." P. 289.

"* Geneſis xii, 10, 14, 15, 17—20. † Ibid. xxxix, 1; xl. 1, 20.

In saying this, Mr. Allwood has as much misrepresented Manetho, as he has in other passages.

"We had a king named Timaus," says Manetho, literally translated; "in his reign, I know not wherefore, GOD blasted us by his breath, and, wonderful to tell! from the parts towards the east came men *ignoble in their origin*, but confiding in their courage, encamped in the country, and easily without one battle seized it with a strong hand. And having reduced into submission the governors of it, they then *burnt down their cities with savageness*, and *dug up the temples of their Gods*."

Yet these are the very persons from whom, upon the authority of this very extract, he says, the Egyptians "saw in every succeeding generation the foundation of some new cities, and the erection of some additional temples." So contrary is his statement to his evidence! The *native* Egyptians too are represented by Mr. Allwood as having no towns and no temples before the Cuthites introduced them, when in the very author from whom he derives all his account of his Cuthites in Egypt, they are expressly noticed to have had both. Besides this, the savages of this author are refined men, and his polished men are mere savages. For,

"they treated all the natives," adds Manetho, "in the most hostile manner, murdering some of them, and carrying off the wives and children of others to be slaves. At last they appointed one of themselves to be king, whose name was Salatis, and he resided in Memphis, receiving tribute from Higher and Lower Egypt, and leaving a garrison in the most necessary places."

Memphis, Mr. A. observes in another place, "was long dignified with the title of metropolis of Lower Egypt;" (p. 467) but was in reality, as these very words of Manetho testify, and as Pliny avers, "formerly the citadel of the kings of Egypt" in general* ; yet, in the extract here given, it is asserted, very contradictorily, that "Lower Egypt was then a swamp; see Herodot. lib. ii. c. 4, 15," whereas Herodotus says only it was such in the days of Menes long before, while the very draining of the country, which is here ascribed to the Cuthites, Herodotus ascribes to this very king, the diverter of the Nile from its original channel, and the building of Memphis within it.

"But he particularly secured the side towards the east, foreseeing the Assyrians, then growing stronger than others, would have an inclination to invade this very kingdom. And having found in the

* Pliny v, 9. "Memphis quondam arx Egypti regum."

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Saite Nome a town very finely ſituated, lying indeed to the eaſt of the river Bubaſtis,"—

A canal well known to ſcholars at this day under that name, the mention of which by Manetho *proves* the draining of Lower Egypt to have taken place *before* the Cuthite invaſion;

"—and a town, denominated from ſome ancient theology Auaris; he rebuilt it, and rendered it very ſtrong with walls, and placed alſo in the houſes of it a multitude of ſoldiers for a garriſon, to the amount of 140,000 men. Thither he came in ſummer, to mow down the corn, to pay the wages, and to exerciſe the ſoldiers carefully for fear of the enemy without. Having reigned nineteen years, he cloſed his life. After him another reigned four and forty years, called Beon; after whom another, Apachnas, thirty-ſix years and ſeven months; and then Apophis ſixty-one, and Janias fifty and one month; but, additional to all, Aſſis, forty-nine and two months. Theſe indeed were the firſt rulers among them, ever at war, and wiſhing more and more to tear up the very root of Egypt."

Such does Manetho repreſent thoſe to be, whom Mr. Allwood, with no other account than Manetho's before him, exalts into the civilizers of Egypt, the inventors of all its arts, and the introducers of all its learning.

"But all this nation," as Manetho goes on to ſay, "was called *Ykſos*, that is, Shepherd Kings; for *Yk* ſignifies a king in the ſacred language, and *ſos* a ſhepherd or ſhepherds in the common dialect, and thus is the word *Ykſos* compounded. Yet ſome ſay they were Arabians.—But theſe the fore-mentioned kings, who were called Shepherds, and their poſterity, Manetho reports to have held Egypt for 511 years, but that *afterwards*,"—

Not in the period of thoſe years, as Mr. Allwood at another place avers (p. 544) but *after* the concluſion of them;

"—he reports an inſurrection to have been made againſt the Shepherds by the kings of Thebais and the reſt of Egypt, and a great, *long* war to have been provoked between them: but under a king, whoſe name was Aliſtragmuthoſis, he reports the Shepherds to have been worſted by him, to have been driven out of all the reſt of Egypt, and blocked up in a place that was ten acres in compaſs, Auaris by name. All this, ſays Manetho, the Shepherds fortified with a wall great and ſtrong,"—

But Manetho muſt mean, if he writes with any conſiſtency, that they *had* fortified it with ſuch a wall; becauſe he tells us that the *firſt* king of theſe Shepherds had done ſo before. The reaſon was,

"—that they might have all their property and their plunder in a ſtrong hold; but that Thummoſis, the ſon of Aliſtragmuthoſis, endeavoured to take it by the violence of a ſiege, lying before the walls with 480,000 men; but that, when he deſpaired about the ſiege, he made

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an agreement for their leaving Egypt, and going all unhurt wherever they pleaſed: that then, under the agreement, no leſs than 240,000 of them went away, with their houſeholds and property, out of Egypt into the WILDERNESS and SYRIA; but thoſe, fearing the empire of the Aſſyrians, for the Aſſyrians were then maſters of Aſia, they built themſelves a city ſufficient for ſo many myriads of men, IN WHAT IS NOW CALLED THE COUNTRY OF JUDÆA, and named it JERUSALEM*."

In this fictitious and extravagant fragment of hiſtory, upon which ſo much ſtreſs is laid by Mr. Allwood in the extract above cited, and in a thouſand other paſſages of his work, we can diſcern nothing but the traces of a wilfully perverted narrative, mangled by the coarſe hand of prejudiced ignorance, and hardly exhibiting one feature, one lineament of the original form. If indeed we examine it part by part, we ſhall ſee ſuch a diſſimilarity in it from the hiſtory of the Iſraelites in Egypt, that we cannot recognize any identity in the one with the other. But the concluſion is ſo plain and pointed, referring all ſo ſpecifically to the Iſraelites by the ſucceſſive notices of the "wilderneſs" of "Syria," of "Judæa," and of "Jeruſalem," that we cannot heſitate a moment in concluding to whom the whole belongs.

Even Mr. Allwood "recognizes" in Manetho "the deſcendants of Jacob," under the title which he ſays Manetho gives to "another race of Shepherds" that "ſucceeded in Egypt" the Cuthites; even "the title of *Captives*," given them as "enſlaved in Egypt." But, as we have been obliged before to reprobate his application of Manetho's *Ykſos* to his own Cuthites, ſo are we equally obliged to reject his application of Manetho's *Captives* to the Iſraelites. Mr. A. attaches the title to a race *ſucceeding* the *Ykſos*, while Manetho confines it abſolutely to the *Ykſos* themſelves. "In another *copy*," notes Joſephus, the tranſcriber of the extract from Manetho, "I have found the appellation from *Yk* not to ſignify kings, but on the contrary to indicate Captive Shepherds†." The captives therefore of this copy are the very ſame with the Shepherd Kings of the *other*. "But," as Joſephus adds a little afterwards, "in another *book* of the Egyptian hiſtory, Manetho ſays, "that this nation, which is denominated the Shepherds, was called Captives in their ſacred

* Joſephus contra Appionem i, 14; who, liſtening only to the common ſenſe of criticiſm, produced theſe paſſages of Manetho as merely applicable to the Iſraelites.

† Ibid. ibid.

books."

books*." Both thus appear again to be one and the ſame; and the legends of Manetho are brought ſtill nearer to the truths of the Bible.

Even the ſtrong town, Auaris of Manetho, in which theſe Captive Shepherds *treaſured* up their property and plunder, from which they marched away into the "wilderneſs," into "Syria," into "Judæa," and up to "Jeruſalem," and which was therefore a town in the land of Goſhen, is the very town of *Rameſes* there. Joſeph, who placed his relations in the land of Goſhen, is ſaid in one paſſage to have placed them "in the land of *Rameſes*†." The Iſraelites are alſo ſaid in their captivity to have "built for Pharaoh *treaſure-cities*, Pithom and *Raamſes*‡."

The *Ykſos* then of Manetho, the Cuthites and Titans of our preſent author, prove at the cloſe to be the very family of Jacob; always ſhepherds by profeſſion, and at laſt made captives by the Egyptians. Theſe are, in fact, his "very ingenious and enterpriſing people." Theſe are the men whom he employs in "greatly improving" the country of Egypt, particularly in "draining" the lower part of "it," and turning what was a "ſwamp" into "one of the moſt beautiful provinces upon earth." Theſe are the men too, who laid "in every ſucceeding generation the foundation of ſome new cities, and the erection of ſome additional temples:" and there is ſo much truth in this repreſentation of the men, though unſuſpected by the writer at the moment, that they actually did build two principal towns for the Egyptians. But theſe are alſo made by him "the firſt rebels after the flood againſt the ordinations of Heaven,"—"the firſt diſturbers of the peace of mankind," the firſt who "eſtabliſhed the worſhip of the ſolar orb," and who "gave themſelves ſuch denominations derived from the attributes of fire, as effectually diſtinguiſhed them from the profeſſors of every other religion." *The children of Abraham* are thus exhibited as the *inventors* of *fire-worſhip*, as the *introducers* of it among *the nations*, and the *denominators* of themſelves *Titans*, or *Sun-worſhippers*, from it.

Such are the aberrations of hypothetical hiſtorians, when they do not examine carefully their road at every turn! But we preſs not the point any further, for the ſake of this very reſpectable author. In the next month we ſhall make two more obſervations, equally hiſtorical with the foregoing, upon two other points in his work; in which, we think, he has

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* Joſephus contra Appionem i, 14.
† Geneſis xlvii, 11. ‡ Exodus i, 11.

again

again erred conſiderably, though, as now perhaps, in good company*.

(To be concluded in our next.)

ART. VIII. *Obſervations on the preſent State and Influence of the Poor-Laws; founded on Experience; and a Plan propoſed for the Conſideration of Parliament: by which the Affairs of the Poor may in future be better regulated; their Morals, and Habits of Induſtry, greatly improved; and a conſiderable Reduction in the Poor-Rates effected. By Robert Saunders, Eſq.* 8vo. 173 pp. 3s. 6d. Sewell, &c. 1799.

DR. NASMITH, whoſe Charge to a Grand Jury was noticed in our Review, vol. xiv, p. 235, has anticipated us in reviewing this tract. He contends, in oppoſition to Mr. Saunders, that "whatever abuſes may exiſt in the management of the Poor, they are not to be imputed to the inefficiency but to the neglect of the laws; that no new ſtatutes are requiſite to remedy theſe abuſes; but that nothing further is neceſſary, than to recal the attention of the reſpectable inhabitants

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* The temples erected in Egypt by the Cuthites, according to Mr. Allwood, ſeem to have been the Pyramids. "Whenever this people ſettled in regions, where there were no natural elevations ſuited to their ideas of this mode of worſhip, they contented themſelves with the rearing of artificial mounds, either of ſtone or earth. Thoſe of the higheſt antiquity, which were conſtructed of ſtone, were commonly of the pyramidal form; thoſe of earth were conical.—The former were merely the high altars, on which the wretches, devoted to death by the rage of a ſanguinary ſuperſtition, were deſtined to meet their fate. *Upon them they offered their*" ordinary "*ſacrifices*" of bullocks, &c. "to the ſolar orb." P. 414. There has been a folly long predominant among the vulgar herd of antiquaries, in thinking the ſtone-monuments amongſt ourſelves, which we call *Cromlechet*, to have been conſtructed for the ſame purpoſe: but this has been far outgone in the preſent inſtance. For what is the abſurdity of ſlaying the victims upon the bunching back of a *cromlech*, to that of hoiſting them up to the ſummit of a pyramid? Both of the monuments are obviouſly ſepulchral; but have been converted into temples or altars by that wonder-working power of fancy, which conſiders every monument as religious, and ſo pronounces it at once either Druidical or Titanian. The idea of a *grave* is too low for the minds of ſuch antiquaries.

of

of every parish to the true spirit and meaning of the laws now existing, and to engage them to unite in enforcing a strict and punctual observance of them." P. 51. In general, we concur with Dr. N. but in some particulars, which will be stated, we shall assign our reasons for holding a different opinion. So liberal, however, he is (and justly, we believe) in commending the conduct and views of his antagonist, that the controversy will doubtless proceed (if it should proceed) in a manner honourable to both parties, and pleasing, as well as instructive, to all who attend to it.

It appears from this tract, that Mr. S. found the management of the Poor, and the expenditure of the Poor-Rate, in the parish of Lewisham, as bad as can well be imagined. Increasing rates, and debts, were the necessary consequences of this gross mismanagement. He voluntarily undertook the office of Overseer; and within two years he corrected these abuses. The obvious inference is, that such abuses may be removed by force of the existing laws, if parishes will be true to their own interest in the due and steady execution of them. But he infers the contrary; contradicting, as we think, the testimony of his own experience. But let us descend to some particulars on this interesting subject.

"The inhabitants of the workhouse of Lewisham consisted, as all workhouses do, of the profligate and worthless part of the community, of some deserving poor, and of orphan children, or those who have been deserted by their parents. Of the first class there will always be a large proportion, when a workhouse does not furnish work for its inmates; and this was unfortunately the case at Lewisham. I shall leave my reader to form his own idea of the effects of holding out an asylum to the idle and worthless part of society, and of rearing the younger in such company, and with such habits of filth and laziness, the inevitable consequences of the plan. The evil made so great an impression on my mind as to induce me to furnish immediate employment to the poor, and afterwards to propose an addition to the building, which was agreed to accordingly; and in a very short time the poor were employed in picking oakum for his Majesty's yard at Deptford, being accommodated with an excellent work-room, and sleeping apartments over it, in a manner extremely comfortable, and very different from what they had been used to. There was a daily account kept of their work, and they received an allowance of two-pence on each shilling earned. I believe this change gave soon as much satisfaction to the Poor, as advantage to the parish. The plan sent several out of the house, who loved idleness and dirt more than any thing else, but who were determined if they *must* work, that it should be for themselves.

"I had ever considered the bringing together the bad characters of a parish, and associating them with the unfortunate children necessarily thrown on that fund for protection, as one of the great defects of a work-

workhouſe, and leading in its conſequences to perpetuating the collected vices of the worthleſs poor in the riſing generation. It is impoſſible, in my opinion, to deſcribe how ſhort we ſhall ever be of perfection in the management of the poor, while people of all ages and deſcriptions live together in a workhouſe, as they generally do. I was ſo ſtrongly impreſſed with this idea, that I concerted a plan for boarding and lodging all the pariſh boys and girls, above the age of five, at the School of Induſtry, and effected it about a twelvemonth before I quitted the office. The good which muſt reſult from this one arrangement will produce in the end incalculable advantages to the pariſh, and ſociety in general.

" The demand for boys and girls educated on this plan has been ſo great, that all above the age of twelve have been taken away to work at other manufactures, and are no longer a burthen on the pariſh. Of the average number of twenty-one pariſh children in the School of Induſtry in the firſt ten months, eleven were taken away for the purpoſes above-mentioned; and it is more than probable, had they remained in the workhouſe, not one of the eleven would have been applied for. The vacancies at the School of Induſtry have been filled up from the penſion liſt, or by children from the workhouſe, as they became of age to be removed. The earnings of the workhouſe-children in the School of Induſtry, have, in the courſe of even the firſt ten months, amounted to about forty pounds, a clear gain to the public." P. 8.

Here we cordially join hands with Mr. S. and are of opinion, that ſuch a reform as this, generally adopted, would extinguiſh a very large portion of the preſent Poor-Rates. A table of Diet, in which *ſoup* (not broth) ſhould hold a conſpicuous place, would contribute materially to the ſame end.

On the ſubject of the Penſion-Liſt, that is, of orderly, well-behaved, and numerous families, relieved out of the poor-houſe, we agree with the author; and we think the late Act an excellent one, that gave to magiſtrates in this reſpect a diſcretionary power, which the preamble ſtates to have been before *doubtful*, but which, we think, clearly did *not* belong to them.

The management of the *Caſualty-Liſt*, with the precaution for extraordinary caſes (p. 17) ſeems to have been no leſs judicious, than it was legal and regular.

" It is proper to mention here, that when I accepted the office of Overſeer, I had perſuaded the pariſh to aboliſh the practice of eating and drinking at the expence of the Poor; [Poor-Rate] but I am ſorry to ſay, that my going out of office was the ſignal for reſcinding that reſolution, and reſtoring pariſh-dinners to their former ſtate." P. 33.

Surely here is no evidence of any neceſſity for altering the preſent laws. A ſingle appeal againſt the allowance of ſuch accounts, muſt correct theſe groſs abuſes.

At

At pp. 48, &c. ſome good obſervations occur on the ſubject of incorporated Houſes of Induſtry.

" It is a *leading feature* in my plan, and the detaching the duty of Collector, or rather Treaſurer, from that of Overſeer, would alone produce immediate and incalculable advantages in the management of the Poor. All wrangling about the office of Overſeer would immediately ceaſe. The union of intereſted individuals would be completely diſſolved, and an end put to parochial jobs." P. 83.

We apprehend *this* conſequence would quickly appear, that the office of Overſeer would ſink into lower hands than at preſent. Yet this is the *main amendment* of the exiſting laws, propoſed by Mr. S.

" Let us now ſee what other duties are impoſed on Overſeers; and we ſhall ſoon diſcover that they, in a manner, exclude every perſon of reſpectability and independence from accepting the office. The Overſeer, in the firſt place, is to be his own tax-gatherer, or collector; he is the perſon who muſt ſummons defaulters; and he muſt in perſon ſue for a warrant, and act the part of a Sheriff's Officer, by giving his perſonal attendance in levying by diſtreſs, &c. The buſineſs of collecting has been aſſigned by the Overſeers with conſent of veſtry (as in my own caſe) to another; but the veſtry could not exonerate the Overſeer from the riſk and reſponſibility of appointing another to collect, and when a ſummons or warrant was to be executed, none but the Overſeer could do it. If a Pauper is to be removed to a diſtant part of the kingdom, he muſt be conveyed by an Overſeer, and without actual delivery, by his own hands, there is no obligation on the part of the pariſh to which he is removed to receive him. In ſhort, as the law now ſtands, there is not a duty, be it ever ſo menial and degrading, which relates to the Poor, that is not to be performed perſonally by the Overſeer." P. 110.

Theſe are ſolid objections, which we think ought to be removed by a law, authorizing the appointment by veſtry, with concurrence of magiſtrates, of an aſſiſtant Overſeer with a ſalary.

" The ſpirit and independence of gentlemen on the Bench has, however, now and then, led them to object to Overſeers accounts, after having been brought before them; but unhappily for the public, it has been decided, that the juſtices had no right to interrogate the Overſeers on the particulars of their accounts, and a mandamus has been granted to compel them to receive the oath, and ſign them." P. 116.

Dr. N. ſays,

" I grant to Mr. Saunders, that in the verification of ſuch accounts, the magiſtrate acts miniſterially, and not judicially; and that if the Overſeer offers to ſwear to their being true and juſt, the magiſtrate muſt allow them; or, if he refuſes, will be compelled to it by a mandamus. P. 58.

We

We do not entirely aſſent to either of theſe opinions. We deny that a juſtice *muſt* receive the oath of Overſeers, and ſign their accounts, *in all caſes;* and that he will be compelled to it by mandamus. For example: It was lately the common practice, in a large diſtrict with which ſome of us are well acquainted, for Overſeers to expend conſiderable ſums at ale-houſes, on making the Poor-Rate, and on other occaſions; and, what was worſe, in paying to the amount even of *ten* pounds for a marriage-licence, and marriage-fees, of a poor pregnant woman, to a poor man of another pariſh, and entertaining the parties to be married, and any idle perſons who came in the way, at an ale-houſe, for at leaſt two ſucceſſive days. The juſtices gave notice to *new Overſeers*, that ſuch charges, being *foreign to their office*, would not be allowed in future. The latter practice is indeed indictable, and highly criminal. Some obſtinate Overſeers perſiſted, and had ſuch charges poſitively diſallowed. We apprehend, that if a mandamus had been moved to the juſtices, their objection, that they offered to allow all other charges in the account, and rejected only thoſe which the Overſeers had *no authority to make*, would have been admitted by the court, and (if we miſtake not) with much approbation. An Overſeer may, at leaſt, as legally expend, and a juſtice is as much bound to allow, ten pounds, for making a portrait of the ſaid Overſeer, and placing it in the veſtry, as for marrying a poor woman of his own, to a man of another pariſh. We agree, however, with Mr. S. that an extenſion of the power of juſtices in interrogating Overſeers reſpecting their accounts, would be very beneficial. (P. 148.)

We do not agree with Mr. S. that an appeal to the quarter ſeſſions againſt the accounts of Overſeers, is a Quixotical mode; on the contrary, we think it would ſeldom fail to redreſs the grievances complained of. But we differ very much from Dr. N. when he ſays, that "on appeals to orders of removal, the *onus probandi* is always thrown on the reſpondent, who is bound to ſhow that the party removed is legally ſettled in the appealing pariſh." P. 59. We reſpect Dr. N. and his long experience; but we can oppoſe to him an authority, and an experience equally reſpectable. We maintain then, that the *onus probandi* is in ſome diſtricts, and ought to be in all others, thrown upon that party which holds the *affirmative* ſide of the queſtion, whether he be reſpondent or appellant. For example: If the matter of appeal be, that the Pauper removed was never ſettled in the pariſh appealing, then indeed the *reſpondent* muſt begin, and prove the affirmative propoſition which he maintains. But if the matter be, that the Pauper gained a *ſubſequent* ſettlement in another pariſh, then the appellant muſt

begin, and make out his caſe; for the reſpondent cannot be prepared on this part of the appeal. So in an appeal againſt a Poor-Rate; if the appellant denies that he has any rateable property within the pariſh, the reſpondent muſt ſhow that he has; but if he alledges that he is *unequally* rated, the *onus probandi* will lie on *his* ſide.

We prefer the ſcheme of Mr. S. for regulating votes at veſtries by value *in rates*, as well as *numbers*, to that of Dr. N. for a *ſelect veſtry*. In cities and boroughs, it is eaſy to foreſee of what *ſelect perſons* theſe veſtries would conſiſt, and once conſiſting would for ever continue to do ſo.

We have ſufficiently extended our remarks on this ſubject, which is doubtleſs of much importance; and muſt refer thoſe among our readers, who deſire a further acquaintance with the plan of Mr. Saunders, to his tract; an attentive peruſal of which will probably convince them, that he is ſometimes rather haſty in his judgment; but will at the ſame time "inſpire them (as Dr. Naſmith ſays) with veneration for the benevolence and true patriotiſm of his character, and admiration of the ſtrength and vigour of his mind." P. 69.

ART. IX. *A familiar Survey of the Chriſtian Religion, and of Hiſtory, as connected with the Introduction of Chriſtianity, and with its Progreſs to the preſent Time. Intended primarily for the Uſe of young Perſons of either Sex, during the Courſe of private Education. By Thomas Giſborne, A. M.* 8vo. 571 pp. 8s. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

THAT the eye of Providence conſtantly ſuperintends the intereſts of Religion, will not be denied, except by thoſe who diſregard Religion and Providence; and when we ſee the defenders and expounders of Religion multiplied in proportion to the aſſaults that are made upon it, we cannot but connect the circumſtances with each other, and admire the wiſdom which out of temporary evil produces permanent good. One great point at this moment ſought by the judicious advocates for Chriſtianity, is to provide introductory and elementary works in divinity for all claſſes of ſtudents. The pretence of the ſceptic, that Religion ought not to be taught till the underſtanding has acquired maturity ſufficient to judge of its doctrines and its evidences, is now completely exploded. This inſidious plan, by precluding that habitual reverence for God, and ſacred things,

things, which is often found the ſtrongeſt ſafeguard of virtue and conſcience, would make the path to tranſgreſſion eaſy, and the way to piety almoſt impracticable. The friends of Religion have ſeen, not only that ſuch a method would be flagitious in the higheſt degree, but that too great an approach to it had very commonly been made, by mere neglect of early inſtruction. While arts, ſciences, and languages were taught with unremitting diligence, the youth of both ſexes were frequently left almoſt to chance for their ideas on the moſt important of all ſubjects. To provide inſtructors and teachers with the moſt effectual means of preventing this great evil, has lately been the laudable employment of ſeveral pious and exemplary perſons.

The attention of Mr. Giſborne to a ſubject ſo congenial to his mind, pointed out to him, that, in the hiſtory of Religion more eſpecially, ſome introductory work was ſtill wanting, to lead the youth of both ſexes to a right, though general knowledge of facts. His ideas on the ſubject of his work, and his reaſons for undertaking it, will beſt be underſtood from his own words.

"Of late years much has been done, and ably done, to facilitate the communication of religious knowledge to youth. Many excellent elementary works, having for their object the explanation of ſcriptural hiſtory, and ſcriptural doctrines, in a manner at once inſtructive and engaging to the opening mind of the pupil, have been given to the public: and they have been received with the gratitude which the writers merited. Let me not be ſuſpected of a diſpoſition to detract from the value of thoſe works, the circulation and uſe of which I wiſh to ſee every day more widely extended, when I venture to obſerve, that an additional treatiſe on a plan ſomewhat enlarged has appeared to me to be wanting; a treatiſe which might fitly intervene between the peruſal of books of the claſs to which I have alluded, and the ample range of reading ſcarcely to be expected but from the leiſure and induſtry of manhood. The deficiency which I conceived to exiſt, I have endeavoured in the following pages to ſupply.

"My intention has been to lay before the reader a familiar and compendious view of the Chriſtian religion, and of the principal hiſtorical events connected with its introduction and progreſs, its corruption and reformation; including a conciſe account of the Scriptures of the old and new Teſtaments, and a ſummary of the evidences of the truth of Chriſtianity, together with ſome remarks on forms of church government and religious eſtabliſhments. Bearing in mind that I have been addreſſing myſelf to natives of Great Britain, I have been ſolicitous to draw the attention of the reader, wherever the ſubject afforded a fit opportunity, to events or circumſtances which have had a particular influence on his own country; and by rendering him acquainted with the principles on which its religious inſtitutions are eſtabliſhed, to guard him betimes from being haſtily prejudiced againſt

thoſe

those institutions by misrepresentations or groundless objections. I have endeavoured, on suitable occasions, to obviate, without entering too deeply into argument, some of those cavils of scepticism and infidelity which a young person may probably hear; and thus to lead him to withhold implicit confidence from others, which he may afterwards have to encounter. Throughout the whole work it has been my predominant desire to direct the acquisition of knowledge to its proper purpose; the establishment and confirmation of Christian views, motives, and practice through life." P. vii.

In considering this publication, it naturally seems to take three principal divisions. The first division, which comprehends the five first chapters, gives the history of the Old and New Testament, carrying on the narrative respecting the Jews (though very summarily) even to the present time. It presents, in two distinct chapters, an account of the several books of the Old and New Testament; and in another, a clear and strong, though concise view of the evidences of Christianity. The second part explains the leading doctrines of our holy Religion, and illustrates them by a judicious view of the character of our Saviour. It is contained in the seventh and eighth chapters. Part the third conveys, in three chapters, the history of Christianity, from its origin to the present time, and gives, in a fourth, some very able admonitions and instructions on the subject of Church Government. The concluding chapter is well calculated to leave a right impression upon the minds of those who shall have perused the preceding parts of the work. We do not say that the author has made these divisions in his book, but that it seems to us very naturally so to arrange itself. From the first of these parts we shall content ourselves with giving, as a specimen, the very judicious sentiments of the author, on the general depravity introduced into the human character by the fall; a point of great importance, and very perversely denied by many pretended friends to Religion.

"The radical corruption of human nature is one of those truths, which their very plainness renders it the less easy to support by formal proofs. If a person be unmoved by the decisive arguments, which press upon him every moment at every turn, you scarcely know in what manner to address him on the subject. Happily the minds of youth are not thus hardened against fair reasoning and honest conviction. They have not been familiarized with sin sufficiently to have become blind to its inherent enormity. They have not yet been inured by long habits of guilt to "call evil good, and good evil." They are not obstructed with those prepossessions, nor intoxicated with that self-conceit, so common among persons more advanced in life; who have formed to themselves a favorite system, and examine not at all, or without candour, any evidence against it. Let young persons then search

search the Scriptures, to see whether these things be so or not; and they will find the depravity of human nature inculcated in the strongest terms throughout the sacred writings: and inculcated not only as an undeniable fact, but as the corner-stone of Christianity. Let them look diligently into their own minds, and they will be convinced that the continual indisposition to righteousness and proneness to transgression, which they will discover there, can be ascribed to no other cause. Let them behold what passes in the world around them; and they will be satisfied that the prevailing wickedness of mankind can be traced to no other source. They will perceive that in this, as in every other instance, reason and experience unite in bearing testimony to the truth of the word of God." P. 14.

In the historical sketches, as well as in the doctrinal instructions, contained in this Survey, the great characteristic is clearness and precision. We might exemplify this in various ways; but as that excellence is already known to belong to the writings of this author, we shall only give this general notice of it. The mode in which the character of our Saviour is applied, in chapter the eighth, to the purposes of general imitation, is extremely judicious; and it is introduced by remarks, which are well calculated to excite attention.

"The great pattern which a Christian is uniformly to propose for his imitation, is the character of his Saviour. "Learn of me; for I am meek and lowly in heart: and ye shall find rest unto your souls." —"I have given you an example, that ye should do as I have done." —"Christ suffered for us, leaving us an example, that ye should follow his steps."—"Be like-minded one towards another, according to the example of Christ Jesus."—"Let that mind be in you which was in Christ Jesus." When our Lord laid aside the glory which he had with the Father before the world was, and took human nature upon him, "he was made like unto his brethren, and was in all points tempted like as we are." Hence he is repeatedly styled in the Scriptures the Son of Man, the man Christ Jesus; and is described as growing not in stature only, but in wisdom, and in favour with God. Hence too there appears an obvious reason for those expressions, in which he speaks of his inferiority to his Father, and his ignorance of a part of the divine counsels: expressions which, but for this consideration, might have been deemed inconsistent with other expressions of his own, and with the doctrine of his divinity. Regarding him then in the state in which he manifested himself in the flesh, as a man, conversant with men, encompassed with the infirmities and subject to the pains and sorrows of mortality; let us investigate, with some degree of detail, the example which he has left for our imitation." P. 330.

In the history of the Church, that of the Reformation makes of course an important feature, but we were particularly pleased with the account given of the great precursors of the Reformers, Wickliff and Huss.

"John

"John Wicliff was born A. D. 1324, in the reign of Edward II. Having diſtinguiſhed himſelf at Oxford by ſupporting the privileges of the univerſity againſt the encroachments of the Mendicant Friars, ſettled within its precincts; he was appointed warden of the new college of Canterbury-Hall. Being ejected from that ſtation by the archbiſhop of Canterbury, who ſucceeded the founder, he appealed to the pope. Edward III, in the mean time withdrew, with the approbation of his parliament, the tribute which John had engaged to pay to the ſee of Rome. The pope menaced; and the clergy in general clamoured on his ſide. Wicliff, in a ſpirited treatiſe, oppoſed the papal claim: and his cauſe was immediately decided at Rome againſt him. Wicliff, diſſatisfied with the ſcholaſtic commentators, had long been a diligent ſtudent of the Scriptures. Shocked at the ſcandalous lives of the monaſtic clergy, and at the temporal uſurpations of the Romiſh church; he the more eaſily became ſenſible of ſeveral of the doctrinal corruptions of popery. The errors which he detected were the ſubjects of his pointed animadverſion from the chair of the profeſſorſhip of divinity, to which he had now been elected. Of that poſt alſo he was in conſequence deprived. John of Ghent, duke of Lancaſter, governed England at this period for his feeble father Edward III. The popiſh clergy he deteſted: and regarding Wicliff as one of their victims, took him into confidence; and ſent him with the biſhop of Bangor at the head of an embaſſy to Bruges, to reclaim the national right of conferring eccleſiaſtical benefices, with the general liberties of the Engliſh church, from the Papal commiſſioners; who acceded, and paid no regard, to a compromiſing treaty. The inſight which Wicliff gained on this occaſion into the proceedings of Rome, contributed to open his eyes. On his return he became rector of Lutterworth in Leiceſterſhire. Scarcely had he repaired thither, when a proſecution for hereſy was commenced againſt him, under the auſpices of the archbiſhop of Canterbury and the biſhop of London. He was reſcued by the forcible interpoſition of the duke of Lancaſter. On the acceſſion of Richard II. the power of Lancaſter expired: and five papal bulls inſtantly reached the two prelates, the king, and the univerſity of Oxford, requiring the condign puniſhment of Wicliff. Lancaſter again contrived to ſave him. He now ſent forth into the world the noble work on which he had been for years employed, a tranſlation, the firſt complete tranſlation which ever appeared in our language, of the Bible. The clergy were thunderſtruck at the profane expoſure of the Scriptures: and the biſhops brought a bill into parliament for the ſuppreſſion of the book. Scarcely had they beheld the rejection of the bill by a great majority, when they heard that Wicliff was preaching againſt tranſubſtantiation. At Oxford they rallied their forces; procured the condemnation of Wicliff's tenets; and obliged him finally to retire from the univerſity, which he had ſtill continued occaſionally to viſit. He withdrew to Lutterworth; and died A. D. 1384. The ſeed which he had ſown made rapid progreſs during his life; and ripened after his death into a glorious harveſt." P. 484.

"The zeal of the council (of Conſtance) was at the ſame time directed with equal ardor to another object; the deſtruction of John Huſs. Huſs, a native of Prague, was appointed, A. D. 1408, rector of the univerſity in that city. He became acquainted with ſome of the writings of Wicliff; and did not conceal his admiration of them. The neighbouring clergy, to whoſe lives the piety of Huſs was a conſpicuous contraſt, complained to Rome: and Huſs, without being heard, was excommunicated. He daily received additional countenance and reſpect in Bohemia, and from perſons of the higheſt claſſes. At this period John XXIII. being at war with the king of Naples, diſpatched a legate to Prague, as to other places, to raiſe troops by granting indulgencies. The ſpirited writings of Huſs ruined the levy. Accuſed of Hereſy, he was required to attend the council of Conſtance; and received from Sigiſmund an Imperial ſafe-conduct, ſpecifically guaranteeing both his journey thither and his return. On his road through Germany he was welcomed from city to city with the higheſt reverence. When he arrived at Conſtance, he was thrown, after a trifling examination before the pope and cardinals, into a dungeon, and loaded with fetters. Unceaſing exertions were made by his enemies to obtain from Sigiſmund a retraction of his ſafe-conduct, and to procure from the council the condemnation of Huſs. Both attempts were ſucceſsful. Petitions ſigned in Bohemia by nearly all the nobles and gentlemen of the kingdom, claiming the faith of the Imperial promiſe, were preſented to the council and to the emperor in vain. Huſs, though he appears to have held ſeveral of the leading doctrines of the Romiſh Church; refuſing to acknowledge the ſupremacy of the pope, and to admit in their full extent other Romiſh tenets, was condemned to the ſtake. Seven biſhops immediately advanced to perform the ceremony of his degradation from the prieſtly office, antecedently to his execution. Each prelate, adding a curſe, took off a part of the ſacerdotal garments of their victim. The ſcene was cloſed by one of the biſhops; who placing a cap, painted with forms of fiends, on the head of Huſs, cried out, "Hereby we commit thy ſoul to the devil." Huſs ſmiled, and anſwered, "It is leſs painful than a crown of thorns." He was immediately burned; and his aſhes were ſcattered into the Rhine. His diſciple, Jerome of Prague, who, on hearing of his maſter's danger, haſtened to his comfort, was at firſt terrified at the proſpect of death, and recanted. But he was ſoon reſtored to Chriſtian fortitude, and encountered martyrdom with joy. The remains of Wicliff had already experienced the vengeance of the fathers of Conſtance. His bones, by their command, were dug up; and committed with his works to the flames. The council, having decreed that the laity ſhould no longer receive the cup at the holy ſacrament, and diſappointed all Europe by poſtponing that reformation of the church which it had originally averred to be its principal purpoſe, was diſſolved, A. D. 1418." P. 491.

The chapter on Church Government (chap. xii.) may perhaps be conſidered, by ſome readers, as leſs calculated than the reſt for the general information of youth; but when it is conſidered how much effort is now made to circulate notions hoſtile

hoſtile to our excellent and truly apoſtolical eſtabliſhment, it will be allowed by judicious perſons, that ſome leading inſtructions on this ſubject cannot be ſuperfluous. The introduction to this part is ſo clear and ſenſible, that we cannot refuſe ourſelves the pleaſure of inſerting it.

"In every community or body of men, civil or eccleſiaſtical, ſome ſpecies of government is requiſite for the good of the whole. Otherwiſe, all is irregularity, confuſion, and interminable contention. How then, in any particular country, is the Chriſtian church to be governed? "Every ſeparate congregation," anſwers the independent, "is a ſovereign church; amenable to no extrinſic juriſdiction, and entitled to no juriſdiction over other churches."—"That mode of government," replies the preſbyterian, "is calculated to deſtroy unity, coöperation, and concord among Chriſtians. All congregations within the ſame ſtate, which agree in doctrine, ought to be under the general ſuperintendence of a repreſentative aſſembly, compoſed of their miniſters and delegates."—"Such a repreſentative aſſembly," returns the epiſcopalian, "wants vigour and diſpatch; and is perpetually open to tumult, partiality, and faction. Divide the country into dioceſes; and ſtation a biſhop in each, armed with ſufficient authority, and reſtrained by adequate laws from abuſing it. Such was the apoſtolical government of the church: ſuch," perhaps he adds, "was the government enjoined on ſucceeding ages."—"Away!" cries the papiſt, "with theſe treaſonable diſcuſſions. The Pope, the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, is, by divine right, the only ſource of eccleſiaſtical power; the univerſal monarch of the univerſal church."

"Writing as I am, to proteſtants, I may paſs by the claim of the ſucceſſor of St. Peter. But the concluding words of the epiſcopalian are of prime importance. If Chriſt, or his apoſtles, enjoined the uniform adoption of epiſcopacy; the queſtion is decided. Did Chriſt then or his apoſtles deliver or indirectly convey ſuch an injunction? This topic has been greatly controverted. The fact appears to be this: that our Saviour did not pronounce upon the ſubject; that the apoſtles uniformly eſtabliſhed a biſhop in every diſtrict, as ſoon as the church in that diſtrict became numerous; and thus clearly evinced their judgement as to the form of eccleſiaſtical government moſt advantageous, at leaſt in thoſe days, to Chriſtianity: but that they left no command, which rendered epiſcopacy univerſally indiſpenſable in future times, if other forms ſhould evidently promiſe, through local opinions and circumſtances, greater benefit to religion. Such is the general ſentiment of the preſent church of England on the ſubject*.

"That

"* I have pleaſure in quoting on this point the words of two eminent prelates and defenders of the church of England, one at the beginning, the other at the end of the preſent century. "Eccleſias Reformatas, etſi in aliquibus a noſtrâ Anglicanâ diſſentientes, libenter amplector. Optarem equidem regimen epiſcopale benè temperatum, et ab omni injuſtâ dominatione ſejunctum quale apud nos obtinet, (et ſi quid ego in his rebus ſapiam,

" That the two orders of priests and deacons, into which, subordinately to bishops, the whole body of English clergy is distributed, were instituted by the apostles, is a fact too plain to require a formal proof. The deacons were inferior to the priests; they were authorised to baptise; they assisted in the administration of the sacrament, but were not permitted to consecrate the bread and wine: and they were specially entrusted with the care of the poor. The several functions of our priests and deacons are in no essential point different from the corresponding offices of similar ministers of the church in primitive times. The silence of the Scriptures, and the usages of the ancient church, sanctioned the appointment of archbishops, archdeacons, and other ecclesiastical officers; whenever the appointment appeared, as the numbers of Christians were multiplied, beneficial to the interests of religion. If any state should be of opinion, that to give to some of its leading ecclesiastics a share in the legislative authority would also advance the interests of religion; there is no scriptural objection to the

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sapiam, ab ipso apostolorum ævo in ecclesiâ receptem fuerit,) et abiis omnibus fuisset retentum: nec despero quin aliquando restitutum, si non ipse videam, at posteri videbunt. Interim absit ut ego tam ferrei pectoris sim, ut ob ejusmodi defectum (sic mihi absque omni invidiâ appellare liceat) aliquas earum à communione nostrâ abscindendas credam; aut, cum quibusdam furiosis inter nos scriptoribus, eas nulla vera ac valida sacramenta habere, adeòque vix Christianos esse, pronuntiem." Letter from Wake, archbishop of Canterbury, to Mr. Le Clerc, published in the appendix to Maclaine's Translation of Mosheim, 8vo. vol. vi. p. 124.

" We may safely challenge the enemies of episcopacy to produce evidence of the existence of a single antient independent church, which was not governed by a bishop: I mean, after it was fairly established. —But though I flatter myself that I have proved episcopacy to be an apostolical institution; yet I readily acknowledge, that there is no precept in the New Testament, which commands that every church should be governed by bishops. No church can exist without some government. But though there must be rules and orders for the proper discharge of the offices of public worship; though there must be fixed regulations concerning the appointment of ministers; and though a subordination among them is expedient in the highest degree; yet it does not follow that all these things must be precisely the same in every Christian country. They may vary with the other varying circumstances of human society; with the extent of a country, the manners of its inhabitants, the nature of its civil government, and many other peculiarities which might be specified. As it has not pleased our Almighty Father to prescribe any particular form of civil government for the security of temporal comforts to his rational creatures: so neither has he prescribed any particular form of ecclesiastical polity as absolutely necessary to the attainment of eternal happiness. The Scriptures do not prescribe any definite form of church-government." Bishop Pretyman's Elements of Christian Theology, vol. ii. p. 383, 396, 398."

plan.

plan. Thus England ſtations its biſhops in the upper houſe of parliament. Obſerve, however, that the clergy in England, form not a diſtinct body from their fellow-ſubjects. They are amenable to the ſame laws: they pay the ſame contribution to taxes: they ſuffer the ſame puniſhment for crimes. The property which they poſſeſs as clergymen, from the biſhop to the curate, is the ſalary of an office: and the ſucceſſion to it is open to any family in the kingdom." P. 537.

Having thus laid before our readers a general view of this judicious and uſeful work, we ſhall only add that, on a very careful examination, we ſee no reaſon to object to any part of it; but are ready to give our teſtimony, that the plan is no leſs happily executed than it was juſtly conceived.

ART. X. *Obſervations on the Effects of various Articles of the Materia Medica, in the Cure of Lues Venerea, illuſtrated with Caſes. By John Pearſon, Senior Surgeon of the Lock-Hoſpital, the Aſylum, and Public Diſpenſary; Reader on the Principles and Practice of Surgery.* 8vo. 188 pp. 4s. 6d. J. Callow, Crown-Court, Soho. 1800.

VERY early after the firſt appearance of the venereal diſeaſe in Europe, mercury, which had been before given in various cutaneous affections, was found to be efficacious in curing this complaint alſo. But as the mode of uſing it was not well underſtood, it was often adminiſtered in ſuch quantities, or in ſo rude a manner, as not only to fail in effecting a cure, but frequently to occaſion other complaints, ſcarcely leſs fatal than the diſeaſe it was intended to remedy. In a courſe of time therefore it began to loſe its popularity, and various vegetable productions were introduced with the view of ſuperſeding its uſe. Guiacum, and the China and ſarſaparilla roots, which had all of them the merit of being brought from the country where the lues was ſuppoſed to have taken its riſe, were the ſubſtitutes that were firſt recommended, and in the order in which they are named; and as theſe medicines, but particularly guiacum and ſarſaparilla, were found to be eminently uſeful in remedying ſome of the conſequences of the diſeaſe, or of the ill effects produced by the long-continued uſe of mercury, they were ſuppoſed to have a ſpecific power in curing the ſyphilis itſelf. Their merits were extolled beyond all reaſonable bounds, and numerous accounts of cures were publiſhed, ſo well atteſted, that incredulity herſelf muſt have admitted their claim to authenticity. But as their reputation was built upon a falſe

eſtimate

eſtimate of their powers, they fell into diſuſe, and mercury was reſtored to its credit, which it had only loſt from having been improperly and intemperately adminiſtered. Since that time, mezereum*, opium, and various other medicines, and, at the preſent day, the nitric and other acids, have alſo been introduced, with the ſame view of ſuperſeding the uſe of mercury. The pretenſions of theſe medicines to the character of ſpecifics againſt the diſeaſe, and of almoſt infallibility in curing it, are ſupported by innumerable obſervations and facts, minutely and circumſtantially detailed; and yet as the reputation of theſe medicines, like that of their predeceſſors, has always declined in proportion as they have been generally known and uſed, it ſeems plain that thoſe obſervations muſt have been fabricated in ſome other loom than that of actual experiment. Grand obſervateur, grand Menteur, was an obſervation made by a French writer, and we wiſh it was ſolely applicable to them; but our countrymen ſeem of late ambitious of ſharing with them that honour. Not that we would inſinuate the obſervations in queſtion to be the produce of deliberate invention. The imagination has a wonderful power in deceiving us, in making us believe that we ſee what has no exiſtence, in giving to airy nothing a form and ſubſtance. However this may be, certain it is that none of the numerous ſpecifics which have been lately divulged, have been found to anſwer the high characters given them by their partial inventors or favourers.

In a well-written Preface, the preſent author firſt takes a general view of the ſubject, and then gives a hiſtory of each of the medicines, in the order in which they were introduced into practice; ſhows the circumſtances to which they generally owed their celebrity; and the cauſe of the decline and fall of their popularity.

In the courſe of his inveſtigation, he ſhows that practitioners have been little leſs unjuſt in condemning and entirely relinquiſhing the remedies that were once popular, than they had been precipitate in extolling them in an undue manner; that although none of the remedies ſubſtituted for mercury, neither guiacum, ſarſaparilla, opium, nor the far-famed nitric acid, are ſpecifics againſt the venereal virus, or ever, unaſſiſted by mercury, cured a genuine ſyphilis; yet they have all of them been found uſeful in relieving certain ſymptoms of the diſeaſe, and in reſtoring the health and vigour of the conſtitution of perſons debilitated and worn down by the diſeaſe, or by the long-continued uſe of mercury. One, and no inconſiderable part of the merit of the volume before us, conſiſts in its fixing the real value of thoſe

* So this author, we ſhould write *mezereon*.

drugs;

drugs; in ſhowing in what caſes, and under what circumſtances, they may be advantageouſly uſed; and thence preventing the rigorous ſentence of total baniſhment which might naturally enough be paſſed upon them by practitioners, diſguſted at their failing to fulfil the pompous promiſes made for them by their intemperate or bigotted favourers.

We ſhall proceed to give a few ſpecimens of the work, that our readers may ſee on what ground we have formed an opinion of its merits.

Sarſaparilla was firſt brought to Europe about the year 1530. It was introduced to ſuperſede the uſe of guiacum and the China-root, which for a long time had been celebrated as ſpecifics againſt the venereal virus. Experience having at length ſhown the fallacy of this opinion, the reputation they had enjoyed was now transferred to the new medicine.

"It was adminiſtered," the author ſays, "under the form of decoction, ſyrup, and powder; and theſe preparations were often rendered more complex, by the addition of ſeveral other articles of the materia medica, yet, notwithſtanding the high reputation this medicine ſuſtained, for a time, it fell gradually into diſuſe and neglect; and the decoction of it was at length conſidered as poſſeſſing merely the properties of a convenient diluent." P. 16.

It was again brought into eſteem and general uſe by the recommendation of the late Dr. William Hunter and Sir William Fordyce; but in venereal caſes it was only recommended to ſecond the virtues of mercury.

"I ſolemnly declare, the late Mr. Bromfield ſays, in his Practical Obſervations on the Uſe of Corroſive Sublimate and Sarſaparilla, I never ſaw a ſingle inſtance in my life, where Sarſaparilla cured the venereal diſeaſe without the aſſiſtance of mercury."—"My own experience," the author adds, "coincides entirely with the obſervation of Mr. Bromfield. I have employed the Sarſaparilla in powder, and in decoctions, in almoſt infinite variety of caſes; and I feel myſelf fully authoriſed to aſſert, that this plant has not the power of curing any one form of the lues venerea.

"The Sarſaparilla indeed, like the Guaiacum, is capable of alleviating ſymptoms derived from the venereal virus; and it ſometimes manifeſts the power of ſuſpending, for a time, the deſtructive ravages of that contagion: but, where the poiſon has not been previouſly ſubdued by mercury, the ſymptoms will quickly return; and, in addition to them, we often ſee the moſt indubitable proofs, that the diſeaſe is making an actual progreſs, during the regular adminiſtration of the vegetable remedy." P. 22.

After giving a ſeries of caſes to illuſtrate this doctrine, the author adds,

"But, while I reject it as a ſpecific, I would by no means diſparage it as a medicine poſſeſſing no valuable qualities. In thoſe caſes where the malignant powers of the virus have proved materially prejudicial

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to the health, ſo that the patient cannot enter upon the uſe of mercury with propriety, the decoction and powder of Sarſaparilla, will often retard the deſtructive agency of the venereal poiſon, and repair the breaches made in the conſtitution: it may be ſometimes given with advantage, during a courſe of mercurial frictions, when it does not occaſion a determination to the bowels; and it will almoſt invariably remove many of the moſt troubleſome ſequelæ of a courſe of mercury.

"Nor are the ſalutary properties of the Sarſaparilla root uſeful in thoſe diſeaſes only that are either immediately or remotely connected with Syphilis; its beneficial effects are often demonſtrated in the treatment of foul, untractable, ſpreading ſores; in more than one form of ſcrofula; and in the Elephantiaſis, or at leaſt, in cutaneous affections nearly reſembling thoſe to which that appellation is given." P. 39.

The mezereon which has been celebrated for removing venereal nodes, the author found, he ſays, poſſeſſing very little efficacy.

"In a few caſes of anomalous pains, which I ſuppoſed were derived from irregularities during a mercurial courſe, the Mezereum was of ſervice, after I had tried the common decoction of the woods without ſucceſs; but, even in this deſcription of caſes, I have always found it a very uncertain remedy." P. 48.

"Indeed," he adds, "the Mezereum is of ſo acrimonious a nature, often producing heat and other diſagreeable ſenſations in the fauces, and, on many occaſions, diſordering the primæ viæ, that I do not often ſubject my patients to the certain inconveniences which are connected with the primary effects of this medicine, as they are rarely compenſated by any other important and uſeful qualities." P. 49.

The author next examines the pretenſions of opium, of the green rind of the walnut, of the Lobelia ſyphilitica, and various other ſubſtances, that have been celebrated for their power over this diſeaſe, but without ſufficient ground, as he demonſtrates. The objections urged againſt mercury are next conſidered, which he reſolves into the raſhneſs or ignorance in thoſe who adminiſter it.

"Men may amuſe themſelves," he ſays, "by declaiming againſt Mercury, as an uncertain remedy; they may utter querulous details of its baneful effects, and retail tragical ſtories of its malignant influence on the body and mind of thoſe who uſe it: but ſurely all this turbulent eloquence may be directed with equal advantage, not only againſt every potent article of the materia medica, but againſt the very aliment by which we are ſuſtained." P. 98.

"My opportunities," he adds, "of adminiſtering Mercury, have not extended to leſs than twenty thouſand caſes; and I feel myſelf fully authorized to aſſert, that it is a remedy always to be confided in, under every form of Lues Venerea; and, where we have only that one diſeaſe to contend with, that it is a certain antidote, and as ſafe in its operation

operation as any other active medicine, drawn from the vegetable, or the mineral kingdom. Let me be not miſunderſtood here, as if I meant to ſay, that it is a certain and ſafe remedy in the hands of any one who undertakes to diſpenſe it. Quite the contrary:—for a multitude of indiſputable proofs might be adduced, that ignorance and error often render it one of the moſt precarious and miſchievous medicines in uſe. P. 99.

The volume concludes with an inquiry into the power of various acids in curing the venereal diſeaſe, with which he had made numerous experiments; we ſhall give the reſult of his obſervations, which appear to have been conducted with candour.

"The Muriated Barytes," he ſays, "and two of the Mineral Acids, when given to venereal patients, have the power of ſuſpending, for a limited time, the progreſs of the diſeaſe, and of removing many ſecondary ſymptoms; but they are not equal to the ſubduing of the virus, and freeing the conſtitution entirely from the effects of that deſtructive malady. They may likewiſe be employed with great advantage in thoſe phagedenic ulcers of the genitals, and of the groin, which may be claſſed among the ſequelæ of Syphilis.

"4. The Nitric and Nitrous Acids have removed both the primary and ſecondary ſymptoms of Syphilis; and, in ſome inſtances, it ſeems, that the former have not recurred, nor have ſecondary ſymptoms appeared, at the period they commonly ſhew themſelves, when the cure has been imperfect. But, as far as my own experience extends, and that of many reſpectable friends, who are connected with large hoſpitals, a permanent cure has never been accompliſhed by theſe acids, where ſecondary ſymptoms have been preſent." P. 185.

"But while I am obliged," he adds, "thus to detract from the ſuppoſed merits of the Nitrous Acids as an antidote againſt Lues Venerea, I would by no means wiſh to ſee it exploded as a medicine altogether uſeleſs in that diſeaſe.

"Where an impaired ſtate of the conſtitution renders the introduction of Mercury into the animal ſyſtem inconvenient, or evidently improper, the Nitrous Acid will be found capable of reſtraining the progreſs of the diſeaſe, while, at the ſame time, it will improve the health and ſtrength of the patient. On ſome occaſions, this acid may be given in conjunction with a courſe of mercurial inunction; and it will be found to ſupport the tone of the ſtomach; to promote the appetite; to determine powerfully to the kidnies, and to counteract in no inconſiderable degree the effects of Mercury on the mouth and fauces. Theſe advantages are by no means unimportant; and certainly entitle the gentlemen who have been active in promoting the introduction of this acid into general practice, to the gratitude of the public." P. 187.

ART.

ART. XI. *The Speech of the Right Hon. John, Earl of Clare, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, in the Houſe of Lords of Ireland, on a Motion made by him on Monday, February* 10, 1800, "*That, in Order to promote and ſecure the eſſential Intereſts of Great-Britain and Ireland, and to conſolidate the Strength, Power, and Reſources of the Britiſh Empire, it will be adviſable to concur in ſuch Meaſures as may beſt tend to unite the two Kingdoms, in ſuch Manner, and on ſuch Terms and Conditions, as may be eſtabliſhed by Acts of the reſpective Parliaments of Great-Britain and Ireland.*" 8vo. 101 pp. 2s. Wright. 1800.

THE high and deſerved reputation of the Lord Chancellor of Ireland, the diſtinguiſhed abilities he poſſeſſes, the manly firmneſs he has ſhown on trying occaſions, and his undeviating attachment to the proſperity of the Britiſh empire, impreſs a peculiar ſtamp of reſpect on any publication emanating from his mind, and ſanctioned by his authority. It is therefore matter of regret to us, that the circumſtances under which this article muſt appear, when the great queſtion agitated in this Speech will probably be cloſed, confine us to a ſhort notice of its contents.

From a clear and ſuccinct hiſtory of the connection between Great Britain and Ireland, and from remarks on what has paſſed during the laſt twenty years in the latter kingdom, the noble ſpeaker deduces this concluſion, "that the exiſtence of her independent Parliament has gradually led to her recent complicated and bitter calamities," and "that there is no alternative but ſeparation or union." In the courſe of this diſcuſſion, ſeveral intereſting topics are treated with great ability, and particularly the argument againſt an Union, drawn from the ſuppoſed final adjuſtment in 1782, is, in our opinion, clearly confuted and expoſed. Several of the aſſertions of Mr. Grattan, in his well-known Addreſs to his Conſtituents, are reprobated with great, but, as we think, juſt ſeverity. The following ſtatement, ſhowing the neceſſary but pernicious kind of dependence on Great Britain, which muſt be the lot of Ireland whilſt in her ſeparate ſtate, may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the noble ſpeaker's forcible ſtyle, and judicious mode of argument.

"Waving for a moment the dignity and independence of imperial Ireland, let me ſee how her government in its preſent ſtate of connexion with Great Britain muſt be adminiſtered. We admit the dependance of the Crown of Ireland upon the Crown of Great Britain; but there

is a diſtinct Parliament in each country, exerciſing all legiſlative functions without reſtriction. The unity and dependance of our executive is unqueſtioned, but all legiſlative authority in either country is denied to the other, not only in municipal regulations, but in every branch of imperial policy, whether of trade and navigation, of peace and war, of revenue, or of the executive government, when it may happen to be committed to a Regency. Between two countries equal in power, ſuch a connexion could not ſubſiſt for one hour; and therefore its exiſtence muſt depend upon the admitted inferiority and marked ſubordination of one of them. Ireland is that inferior country; and call her conſtitution independent or dignified, or by any other high-ſounding title in the Iriſh vocabulary, her's muſt be a provincial government, and of the worſt deſcription; a government maintained not by the avowed exerciſe of legitimate authority, but by a permanent and commanding influence of the Engliſh executive in the councils of Ireland, as a neceſſary ſubſtitute for it. In the preſent ſtate of connexion between Great Britain and Ireland there can be no other bond of their union. If there be not an implicit concurrence by Ireland in every imperial act of the Crown which has the ſanction of the Britiſh Parliament, and in every article of Britiſh legiſlation upon imperial ſubjects, there is an end of your connexion with the Britiſh nation; and I repeat, that the only ſecurity which can by poſſibility exiſt for this national concurrence, is a permanent and commanding influence of the Engliſh Executive, or rather of the Engliſh Cabinet, in the councils of Ireland. Such a connexion is formed, not for mutual ſtrength and ſecurity, but for mutual debility; it is a connexion of diſtinct minds and diſtinct intereſts, generating national diſcontent and jealouſy, and perpetuating faction and miſgovernment in the inferior country. The firſt obvious diſadvantage to Ireland is, that in every department of the ſtate, every other conſideration muſt yield to parliamentary power; let the miſconduct of any public officer be what it may, if he is ſupported by a powerful parliamentary intereſt, he is too ſtrong for the king's Repreſentative. A majority in the Parliament of Great Britain will defeat the Miniſter of the day; but a majority of the Parliament of Ireland againſt the King's government, goes directly to ſeparate this kingdom from the Britiſh Crown. If it continues, ſeparation or war is the inevitable iſſue; and therefore it is, that the general executive of the empire, ſo far as is eſſential to retain Ireland as a member of it, is completely at the mercy of the Iriſh Parliament: and it is vain to expect, ſo long as man continues to be a creature of paſſion and intereſt, that he will not avail himſelf of the critical and difficult ſituation in which the executive government of this kingdom muſt ever remain, under its preſent conſtitution, to demand the favours of the Crown, not as the reward of loyalty and ſervice, but as the ſtipulated price, to be paid in advance, for the diſcharge of a public duty.—Every unprincipled and noiſy adventurer who can achieve the means of putting himſelf forward, commences his political career on an avowed ſpeculation of profit and loſs; and if he fails to negotiate his political job, will endeavour to extort it by faction and ſedition, and with unbluſhing effrontery to faſten his own corruption on the King's Miniſters. Engliſh influence is the inexhauſtible theme for popular irrita-

irritation and diſtruſt of every factious and diſcontented man who fails in the ſtruggle to make himſelf the neceſſary inſtrument of it.—Am I then juſtified, in ſtating that our preſent connexion with Great Britain is in its nature formed for mutual debility; that it muſt continue to generate national diſcontent and jealouſy, and perpetuate faction and miſgovernment in Ireland?" P. 44.

We could dwell with pleaſure on this able and patriotic Speech; which embraces almoſt every topic connected with the queſtion of Union, and places each in a ſtrong and clear point of view; but, for the reaſon already given, we muſt be contented with recommending it to the peruſal of all who either wiſh to receive any further light on the ſubject, or who, on a topic ſo intereſting, would know the ſentiments of the moſt exalted, and perhaps the moſt manly and conſiſtent, political character in the ſiſter kingdom.

ART. XII. *A Syſtem of Familiar Philoſophy in Twelve Lectures, being the Courſe uſually read by Mr. A. Walker. Containing the Elements and the Practical Uſes to be drawn from the Chemical Properties of Matter; the Principles and Application of Mechanics; of Hydroſtatics; of Hydraulics; of Pneumatics; of Magnetiſm; of Electricity; of Optics; and of Aſtronomy. Including every material modern Diſcovery and Improvement to the preſent Time. Illuſtrated by Forty-Seven Copper-Plates, neatly and accurately engraved.* 4to. 571 pp. 2l. 2s. Kearſley, London; Bell and Bradfute, Edinburgh. 1799.

THIS work is divided into twelve long Lectures, the ſubjects of which are illuſtrated by a variety of figures, on forty-ſeven copper-plate engravings. Thoſe Lectures are preceded by a Preface of no great extent, and are followed by an Index.

The general ſubject of Natural Philoſophy has been handled in a maſterly manner by Muſſchenbroek, s'Graveſande, Deſaguliers, and other able perſons. The improvements of latter times have rendered their works at preſent imperfect; and the addition of thoſe improvements alone would render them perfect in their kind; at leaſt, ſo far as perfection can be expected in a work ſo comprehenſive and difficult. A modern book, written ſomewhat in the ſtyle of thoſe excellent publications, and embracing the new diſcoveries, improvements, &c. would be of great uſe, to ſtudents in particular; but we cannot in truth ſay, that Mr. Walker has anſwered that deſideratum. His Lectures indeed contain many modern improve-

ments,

ments, and ſeveral new hypotheſes, ideas, propoſals, &c. but his hypotheſes and his propoſals are in general too extravagant; the new diſcoveries, eſpecially in chemiſtry, are imperfectly noticed, or barely mentioned; and the whole is written in that ſuperficial ſtyle, which can only pleaſe the ignorant for a ſhort time, without being of much uſe either to the memory or to the underſtanding. Yet we do not mean to aſſert that thoſe Lectures are wholly deſtitute of merit. The familiar manner in which ſeveral things are explained, will undoubtedly convey ſome information into certain minds, which are inacceſſible by the formal approaches of ſcientific or mathematical order.

The very firſt Lecture begins with the following paragraphs:

"In order to explain any art or ſcience, I think it is uſeful to give ſome outlines, or general ideas, of their principles, before particular parts are entered upon. On this account a very unpopular beginning will be given to this work. The philoſopher will find ſome documents to condemn, and ſome perhaps to wonder at; the ſtudent will be perplexed before he is inſtructed; and the critic will have plenty of matter for animadverſion, and perhaps for ridicule. But as I ſhall advance nothing but what I believe to be true, and hope to demonſtrate, it will promote the cauſe of truth ſhould any part be confuted.

"I ſet out with a perſuaſion, that attraction and repulſion are the great acting principles of the univerſe. By attraction, I mean that tendency which the atoms of matter have to unite and form bodies; and by repulſion, the reaction of fire, in its combined, active, and latent ſtates; or in its character of electricity, heat, or light. The experiments, through the courſe of this work, will principally tend to the eſtabliſhment of this perſuaſion."

Mr. Walker then ſubjoins the hypotheſis; and he thinks,

"that the particles of light repel each other, and fill all ſpace, in a more or leſs diluted ſtate; that they are thrown off, or repelled from the equatorial parts of revolving ſuns, and recruited by receiving or imbibing light at their polar parts, from other ſuns; therefore, that light exiſts in the abſence of the luminous body, and is only put into progreſſive motion by it. That (by what will be made probable hereafter) it proceeds from the ſun, elementary, or in the character of electricity; but being obſtructed in its paſſage through an ill-conducting atmoſphere, it mixes with the air and becomes light; and what reaches the earth, unites with bodies on the earth's ſurface and becomes culinary fire. We have no conception for what purpoſe the ſun turns on its axis, if it be not to increaſe this repulſion and momentum, by throwing off thoſe particles of light centrifugally from his body. * * * *. For we ſhall prove the fixed ſtars to be ſuns; that they turn on their axis like ours; and no doubt project their light in the ſame way. So theſe luminaries, diſperſed through ſpace at infinite diſtances from one another, fill the univerſe with light of various colours; ſome projecting a predominance of red, others of blue, and others of white light. From the great diſtance by which they are ſeparated,

parated, the light of each muſt become feeble before it reaches its neareſt neighbour; and not only be abſorbed into the ſtronger ſtream, but much of it attracted into the body of that neighbour, at its polar parts. For the polar parts of each ſun, having little or no centrifugal repulſion, its attractions in thoſe parts will draw in vagrant and weak light from other ſuns, and thereby ſupply continually the quantity thrown off at its equatorial parts," &c. &c.

It is not our intention to make any remarks upon this hypotheſis, nor indeed on any of the numerous ſimilar paſſages, which are to be met with in theſe Lectures. We have only tranſcribed it by way of ſpecimen, and ſhall in the like manner ſubjoin a few other ſpecimens of the work, for the purpoſe of giving our readers ſome idea of the nature of its contents.

Amongſt the magnetic amuſements in the ſecond Lecture, we find the following:

" 5. The iron coffin of Mahomet is ſaid to be ſuſpended in the air, by a powerful magnet. A ſmall coffin made of very thin ſheet iron, and faſtened to a table by a black horſe-hair, will ſeem to hang under a magnet, as if without ſupport; ſo that a quill, or ivory knife, may paſs between the coffin and the magnet."

Speaking of the tower of Piſa, which lies inclined to the horizon, Mr. Walker ſays;

" Would to God I could ſay, this ignorance ſhewed itſelf only in leaning towers and old walls! Then, indeed, the miſchief would be trifling; but when we ſee theſe towers and old walls really tumbling about our ears, and loſe all ſenſibility of our danger, what a ſtate of apathy muſt the mind have ſunk to!!! Philoſophy repels politics; they are oil and water!—they are fire and ice!—they deteſt each other!—for philoſophy and deception hold no fellowſhip: truth is the goddeſs of her adoration, and ſhe deſpiſes whatever leans to deceit or intolerance."

A great part of the third Lecture is employed in deſcribing a variety of experiments on wheel-carriages; pointing out their defects, and propoſing remedies, improvements, &c.

" In a country," ſays Mr. W. " where mechanics have made ſuch a progreſs, where almoſt every operation for either uſe, convenience, or pleaſure, ſeems nearly to have reached its ultimatum, it is wonderful that ſo little improvement has taken place in the mechanical part of our wheel-carriages; in the ornamental part, I grant, art and ingenuity have gone ſo far towards perfection, that all nations do homage to this, by having their more elegant carriages made here. Had there been the ſame attention paid to their mechanical conſtruction, and to the eaſe of the much-abuſed animals that draw them, the following experiments had not been made. I ſhall, therefore, take upon me to plead the cauſe of that firſt of quadrupeds, a horſe; and if I am happy enough to excite any efforts in favour of his eaſe or comfort,

comfort, I ſhall eſteem it more than a reward for what I have done with an intention to ſerve him."

After the recital of the experiments, Mr. W. ſubjoins the following words:

"It may be expected, after the various faults I have taken the liberty to find with the preſent mechaniſm of wheel-carriages, I ſhould offer ſome medicines for their defects and diſeaſes. * * * We ſeem to have loſt ſight of the original deſign of a carriage, or, rather, the eye is perverted from the main object, and the lace and ruffles become the only parts to which we attend. In what I am going to ſay, however, reſpecting what I apprehend to be an improvement in coaches, I muſt beg leave to be underſtood that ornament and decoration are out of the queſtion. 'Tis the eaſe of the riders and horſes I aim at; the ſtrength and lightneſs of the carriage; its cheapneſs and durability.

"In the firſt place, I explode the perch; I pronounce this heavy and unwieldy piece of timber, an uſeleſs load to the horſes. Why ſhould not the bottom of the body anſwer all its purpoſes?—and the fore-ſprings the purpoſes of a crane-neck?"

In ſhort, he propoſes (and he delineates the plan in a plate) to fix the fore-ſpring to the body of the carriage; alſo to connect the back-ſprings with the axle of the large wheels; and to unite the fore-ſprings by means of a croſs-bar, to which the fore-axle is attached by the uſual bolt; ſo that the axles and the body ſhould be connected only by the fore-ſprings. And he enumerates a great many advantages, which, in his opinion, ſuch a conſtruction would have, above the common conſtruction.

In the ninth Lecture, Mr. W. announces himſelf as the inventor of the moveable light on St. Mary's Iſle. We have no reaſon to contradict his aſſertion; but we ſincerely admire the contrivance; and ſhall, therefore, ſubjoin the deſcription.

"Conſidering" ſays he, "that much light is reflected from the two ſurfaces of lenſes, and, of courſe, loſt to diſtant obſervation; and that mirrors added much to the natural light of a lamp, in one direction, I united ſeven parabolic concave mirrors in one perpendicular frame, with an Argand's lamp in the focus of each mirror. The mirrors were 22 inches in diameter, of copper, plated with poliſhed ſilver ſurfaces, ſo that the volume of light is five feet and a half in diameter, and appears like one united blaze of light at a diſtance: the reſervoirs of oil are fixed behind each mirror. To diſtinguiſh this light at ſea from all others, and to enlighten all ſides of the horizon in ſucceſſion, I contrived a machine to turn the whole frame of lamps round on an upright ſhaft, in two minutes; the light thus appearing and diſappearing at the end of every ſecond minute, gives the approaching ſeaman a perfect aſſurance *what* light it is. As it is a property of the parabolic curve to reflect the light that falls upon it, from its focus,

cus, in parallel lines; the whole ſeven mirrors ſend out a cylinder of light, that as it paſſes the ſpectator, appears for a moment of unuſual ſplendour; ſo that by obſerving that, and the next return of its brilliancy by his watch, he eaſily perceives it to be the Scilly light."

ART. XIII. *Annals of the French Revolution, or a Chronological Account of its principal Events, &c. By A. F. Bertrand de Moleville.*

(Concluded from our laſt, p. 538.)

WHENEVER we have occaſion to inveſtigate the cauſes, or to trace the events of the French Revolution, we are ſtill more firmly perſuaded of a truth, which is exemplified in almoſt every page of the ſecond volume of theſe Annals; namely, that all the injuſtice and deſpotiſm which have afflicted France during the laſt ten years naturally reſulted from the decrees paſſed, and the principles propagated, by the Conſtituent Aſſembly.

"When Robeſpierre guillotined the rich land-holders to aſſign their eſtates to the diſpoſal of the nation, he did no more than draw a very accurate deduction from the principle that had been eſtabliſhed by the firſt Aſſembly relative to the clergy." Vol. ii, p. 332.

Theſe examples, which it is to be wiſhed may operate as ſalutary warnings to the advocates for innovation, occur frequently in the courſe of the work, and cannot be too much recommended to the ſerious attention of the well-meaning of all parties. The character of the Duke de la Rochefoucault was in private life eſtimable, and his views as a public man were probably ſuggeſted by a diſintereſted zeal in what he believed the cauſe of his country; yet the following obſervations are but too well juſtified by facts.

"The Duke *de la Rochefoucault*, and many other economiſts and philanthropiſts, with intentions which they believed pure, opened the breach through which *Robeſpierre* and *Marat* were to ruſh; and ſome pariſh-prieſts, who had no other object than to attain eccleſiaſtical dignities, and increaſe their income by diminiſhing that of the high Clergy, recruited the revolutionary army, which was deſtined to overturn their own parſonages as well as the palaces of their Biſhops. The People, whoſe name was borrowed to attack all the ancient inſtitutions both civil and religious, were by their ignorance, as well as their impetuoſity, the blind inſtrument of all the horrid events, the object of which was carefully kept from them; for they would have exterminated,

nated, not the Ariſtocrats, but the Revolutioniſts, if they had been let into the ſecret. Theſe were well aware of the danger; and it was to avoid it, that in the Sitting of the 2d of November, 1789, inſtead of propoſing at once the ſpoliation of the Clergy, they ſpoke only of the advantages of a better diviſion of the property of the Clergy, and of the certainty of obtaining them by declaring it at the diſpoſal of the Nation, whoſe mind might be made known reſpecting it by reſolutions in the Departments.—It was not till they had laboured for five months to miſlead the public by every manner of means, that they dared to take one ſtep more, and to propoſe to inveſt the Adminiſtrations of the Departments, or of the Diſtricts, with the management of the eccleſiaſtical eſtates. The intention of alienating them was by no means made known, and the People were always made to underſtand that it was not a thing to be thought of till they had been conſulted in all the Communes." Vol. ii, p. 332.

In the chapter on the Red Book will be found much curious and uſeful matter; and it is not without indignation we obſerve, that one article of ſecret diſburſement is 60,000 livres (2,500l. ſterling) for the education of the Lameths! "Ingratitude, thou marble-hearted fiend"! A committee was appointed to examine this regiſter, and the manner in which they fulfilled their taſk, was not ſo well illuſtrated by their own report, as by the dignified anſwer of the Marſhal de Segur to their calumnies againſt him. (P. 351.)

The impoſtures of the Revolution were not always of a ſerious kind; rebellion and murder were ſometimes ſuſpended for farce and pantomime; and the ridiculous ſcene of Anacharſis Clootz, and his pretended deputies from all the nations of the earth, is well detailed in p. 462. The following note throws great light on the mode of collecting theſe *auguſt* deputies.

"*M. de Boulainvilliers*, who was that day at the Aſſembly, obſerved among the Deputation a negro who belonged to one of his friends. "Ah, *Azor!*" ſaid he to him, "what are you come to do here?"—"Heigh, Maſſa!" replied the negro, "no me do de African?"

"It was diſcovered the next day, that this embaſſy of all the nations of the earth to the moſt auguſt Aſſembly of the univerſe, and which formed the train of the Baron *de Clootz**, was entirely compoſed of vagabonds and foreign ſervants hired at 12 livres a head. The ſecret was betrayed by an orthographical error. One of the vagabonds of the Deputation went the next day to the Marquis *de Biancourt*, a

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"* This pretended Baron *de Clootz*, who afterwards took the name of *Anacharſis Clootz*, and the title of *Speaker of the Human Race*, was choſen a member of the Convention, and guillotined under the reign of *Robeſpierre* towards the end of March, 1794."

member of the Aſſembly, and aſked to be paid his 12 livres. "What do you mean by your 12 livres?" ſaid *M. de Biancourt*, "I do not know you, and how do I owe you any thing?" "Becauſe, Sir, it was I who did the Chaldean yeſterday in the Aſſembly; we were engaged for 12 livres a piece, and I was deſired to come to you to be paid."—"Indeed, Mr Chaldean, you have been ſent to a wrong perſon; I know nothing of the engagement you talk of, and have nothing to do in that buſineſs." *M. de Biancourt* made no ſecret of this viſit, and the particulars even got into ſeveral newſpapers. It was pretty generally ſuſpected that an ill-ſhaped L taken for a E had cauſed the poor Chaldean's miſtake, and the Duke *de Liancourt* was in conſequence ſuppoſed to be the Treaſurer of the Embaſſy; which however he has conſtantly denied. The author of this farce has been ſought and aſked for in vain; he has never made himſelf known; and it is not yet very clear whether the impoſition was meant to be put upon the Public, or on the Aſſembly only. Certain it is, that the Public was not impoſed upon, and that the Aſſembly were, or appeared to be, completely ſo." Vol. ii, p. 466.

This volume brings the hiſtory as far as the Federation in 1790; and we ſhall conclude our remarks on it, by an extract of a very ſingular nature, relating to a circumſtance, which we recollect to have made a conſiderable impreſſion at the time.

"The tranquillity enjoyed by the King during his reſidence at St. Cloud, was diſturbed for a moment by a very ſtrange occurrence, extremely calculated to awaken ſuſpicion and diſguſt in the minds of the people.

"On the 29th of June, at ten o'clock in the morning, two well-dreſſed young men arrived at St. Cloud in a carriage. They went up to the Palace together, and ſeated themſelves at ſome diſtance from each other, under the veſtibule of the great ſtair-caſe which leads to the apartments; and there they paſſed the whole day, in a ſtate abſolutely motionleſs, and without uttering a ſingle word. No one thought he had a right to aſk them what they were doing there; and, in fact, they might have anſwered by quoting the chapter of *the Rights of Man*, that as they were forbidden by no law from entering that veſtibule, they had a right to remain there. The guards of the Palace, therefore, contented themſelves with watching them narrowly till the evening, when their orders were to turn all ſtrangers out. They were then told to withdraw.—They removed without any anſwer; but inſtead of quitting the Palace they ſtaid in the Court, walking, with meaſured ſteps, under the windows of the King's apartments. This perſeverance ſeemed extraordinary, and the Officer of the Guard ſent them another order to depart. They then ſpoke for the firſt time, and very mildly aſked, if they might not be allowed to continue in the place where they were? The Guard did not inſiſt, and they were left there till the hour of ſhutting the Palace gates. In a few minutes after they had left the Court, they were met by the patrol of St. Cloud, who ſtopped them, and aſked their names. One ſaid he was called *Paul*,

Paul, and the other that his name was *Peter*. The Guard obliged them to get into their carriage, escorted them to the bridge, and saw them go on. Soon after, this patrol heard a carriage coming, found it to be the same they had been escorting, and seeing in it the persons whom they had obliged to depart, they arrested and conducted them to the Guard-house. On being questioned respecting the motive that had brought them to St. Cloud, they both replied, that they had come thither *by a superior order*. Nothing more could be got from them, and they were detained in the Guard-house, where they were kept in sight.

"On the next day the King being informed of what had passed, sent to assure the Municipality that he had given no order to any one to come to St. Cloud. The young men were again examined, and called upon to tell their real names, and to give an account of the superior order which they pretended to have received. The one said he was the son of *M. d'Hozier*, the genealogist; the other, that his name was *Petit-Jean*, and that he was a son of the Treasurer of Corsica; and both maintained that it was from God himself and the Virgin Mary, that they had received an order to come and rescue the King from St. Cloud. In *d'Hozier's* pocket a paper was found, containing these words: "*Louis XVI.* you have lost your crown, you will recover it at St. Cloud;" and in *Petit-Jean's* was a small image of the Virgin, and a letter signed *Mary, Mother of God*.

"They were carried to the prison of the *Abbaye* in Paris. It was found that they had been long connected; that for about six weeks they had been observed stationing themselves before the altar of the Virgin, in the Church of *Notre Dame*, and that it was after one of those solemnities that they had set out for St. Cloud. For the short time they were in prison they preserved that pensive, tranquil, and silent demeanour for which they had been remarked in the vestibule of the great stair-case at St. Cloud. There was no doubt as to the nature of their malady, and the examination of their papers fully corroborated in that respect what their behaviour and replies to the different questions put to them clearly indicated. These circumstances being published in all the public papers happily dissipated the rumours and suspicions which this adventure had begun to create, and men the most disposed to be alarmed were forced to allow that such visionaries could not be very dangerous conspirators*." Vol. ii, p. 496.

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"* Physicians have observed, that the Revolution had considerably multiplied madness and idiotism in France. They have imputed the former to the species of frantic delirium which the fanaticism of Liberty and Equality brought upon a great number of people, and the latter to the violent and sudden impression or extreme stupor produced by the unexpected sight of massacres and other scenes of horror, which so often stained this period throughout the kingdom, but principally at Paris. The adventure of *d'Hozier* and *Petit Jean* indicates a third cause of infanity. Alas! they are not the only persons whose reason has been shaken by the feelings excited by the misfortunes and dangers

The talents of Mirabeau were as indiſputable as his vices; and though the latter often led him to promote and defend the crimes of the French Revolution, it is not likely that, with ſuch abilities, and profound knowledge of mankind, he could long be ſo much deceived as to expect any real or permanent advantage from the meaſures he was ſupporting. Accordingly, in the third volume of theſe Annals, we find him a convert to the Court, and warmly diſpoſed to make ſome reparation for the miſchiefs to which he had ſo largely contributed. The whole of this account is extremely curious and intereſting. There are no grounds for ſuſpecting Mirabeau's ſincerity. The line of conduct which might have been dictated by repentance and patriotiſm, was alſo that by which he was moſt likely to profit; and in appreciating patriots of his deſcription, we muſt always allow due weight to the laſt-mentioned circumſtance. But the probability of his ſucceſs appears much more doubtful than the ſincerity of his intentions. During the whole of the Revolution we have obſerved men, all powerful in evil, very weak when they attempted to remedy it. We ſee them promoting miſchief almoſt without apparent means, yet in no inſtance able (however well inclined) to counteract the effects of their own errors or miſtakes. Once embarked in the Revolution, they have found the torrent too ſtrong to be reſiſted; and their efforts to expiate their guilt have generally met that fate which was due to its firſt commiſſion. How far this might have been the caſe with Mirabeau, can now only be matter of conjecture; but the calamities which have deſolated France and Europe ſince his death, diſpoſe us to regret that the experiment could not be made, and that a man whoſe talents had been a ſcourge and a reproach to his country, ſhould die at the only period in which he appears willing to have exerted them for its benefit. We may ſay that, like Auguſtus, both his birth and his death were misfortunes to mankind. Some of the circumſtances relative to this ſecret negotiation are thus deſcribed:

"Count *L.* an intimate friend of *Mirabeau*'s, had often ſpoken of him to the King and Queen as of a man eaſy to be brought back to monarchical principles, provided that thoſe of Public Liberty were not endangered. This was always made by him the eſſential condition

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of the King. The Revolutionary writers have mentioned thoſe numerous victims of their loyalty, only to turn them into ridicule; ſo far they have played their part, but the part of hiſtory is to reject ſuch atrocious ſarcaſms with indignation, and poſterity will make amends by honourable regret."

of

of his converſion, or rather change of conduct; for ſince the ranks, dignities, and powers, which had been the objects of his ambition or of his envy, were annihilated, *Mirabeau* had ceaſed to be a Democrat. His democracy, like that of many others, conſiſted in lowering to his own level thoſe who were above him, but not in raiſing to it thoſe who were below him. He wiſhed a Monarchy, and had he been made the Miniſter of one, he would ſoon have rendered it deſpotic. Be that as it may, their Majeſties convinced that the talents, popularity, and energy of *Mirabeau* might ſave the State if he were willing to devote himſelf ſincerely to it, charged the Count *de L.* to ſound his real inclinations, which were found to be as favourable as could be deſired. *Mirabeau* recollected the conference which he had had with *M. Malouet* in the month of May, 1789, and threw upon the refuſal of his firſt offers the blame of all the miſconduct for which he was condemned, and which, he ſaid, had led him much farther than he wiſhed. He wrote a very eloquent and circumſtantial letter to the King, in which he frankly confeſſed his errors, but without acknowledging his crimes. He ſpoke of new dangers, expatiated on the neceſſity of preventing them, and offered to point out the means, "But above all," ſaid he in this letter, "ſecure the true rights of the Nation, eſpecially its liberty, and you will not want zealous ſervants to defend the intereſts of your Crown, and thoſe of your ſacred perſon. From this inſtant I thoroughly devote myſelf to your Majeſty's ſervice; but I entreat you never to judge of my ſentiments or intentions by the opinions of the moment, which I ſhall often be obliged to ſupport in order to preſerve a popularity, of which I ought to be careful for the intereſt of the King, and which I am anxious to render ſerviceable to him alone. The ſame motive may alſo ſometimes compel me to oppoſe your deſires, but I beſeech your Majeſty to deign to confide in my fidelity; it is not to be ſhaken, and I dare promiſe you that in one year from this time the Royal Authority ſhall be firmly re-eſtabliſhed on its true baſis, and to ſuch a degree, as ſhall enable the King always to do freely the good his heart deſires."

"The King and Queen were very well ſatisfied with this letter, and charged *M. de Montmorin* to confer with *Mirabeau* concerning his plans, and to aſſure him that his Majeſty not only would never retract the engagements which he had entered into, or the principles which he had avowed at the opening of the States-General; but that it had even always been his deſire that the wiſhes expreſſed in the majority of the inſtructions to the Deputies ſhould ſerve as the baſis to the Conſtitution; and that his opinion was, that all that exceeded that meaſure was ſtill more prejudicial to the people than to the Royal Authority.

"Theſe aſſurances, entirely conformable to the ideas of *Mirabeau*, and as poſitive as he could wiſh, were inſerted in a letter which the King wrote to *M. de Montmorin*, and which he authoriſed him to communicate to *Mirabeau*.

"This letter is perfectly ſufficient," ſaid he, after having read it:—"With ſo formal a pledge of the King's intentions, we may hope to put an end to the Revolution. Believe me, Sir, and pray inform their Majeſties that I will henceforth employ all my influence, and all the means in my power for that purpoſe."

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" This converſation took place in the latter end of January, 1791. It was at that period that *Mirabeau* compoſed the famous memorial, which was ſo much talked of, without being known; for it was ſeen by few, and of thoſe the three to whom I have referred are perhaps the only ones now living.

" The firſt part of this memorial was a ſtatement of the cauſes of the Revolution, and of the incidents which had given it an atrocious character. *Mirabeau* ſpoke with indignation of the compoſition of the Aſſembly, of the factions which divided the popular party, and of the faults of all the parties. He unveiled the projects of the Jacobins, their tendency to republicaniſm, to the annihilation of Religion and all ſocial inſtitutions, and to the ſubverſion of all property; and he declared that from the firſt the want of addreſs and inconſiderate reſiſtance of the Ariſtocracy having entirely diſcredited the moderate men of that party, and conſolidated the enormous power of the popular one, he had found it abſolutely neceſſary to join the latter, in order hereafter to do ſome good, and in the mean time to prevent much miſchief; and that to keep up his credit with this party, he had often been forced to yield to exaggerations, and even to extravagancies. In this manner did he juſtify the part which he had acted during the two firſt years.

" His means were, 1ſt, The diſſolution of the the National Aſſembly, and the calling a new one at the requeſt of the Provinces upon other grounds, and principally upon that of property.

" 2dly. A plan of a Conſtitution, drawn up according to the wiſh of the majority of the inſtructions, and ſanctioned by the King.

" To inſure the ſucceſs of theſe means, he propoſed, 1ſt. A coalition in the Aſſembly between the moſt prudent of the Royaliſts and the beſt of the *Coté Gauche*. 2dly, A diſtribution of periodical papers in the capital, and in the provinces, to open the eyes of the people reſpecting the projects and manœuvres of the Factious, who were miſleading them, and to ſhow the fatal conſequences which muſt reſult from them. 3dly, To ſend into the 83 Departments well-choſen Commiſſioners, oſtenſibly charged with the demarcation of the limits of the diſtricts and cantons, and whoſe ſecret miſſion ſhould be to procure uniform addreſſes for the calling of a new Aſſembly, and for the adoption of the conſtitutional grounds which ſhould be propoſed by the King.

" Reſpecting theſe important facts, and this period, I have no original papers to cite: I have only the notes which I preſerved concerning them. But theſe are exact, and I was ſo ſtruck, ſo occupied at the time with all the circumſtances, that I dare to warrant the accuracy of my memory; declaring, nevertheleſs, that there are many omiſſions in my narrative, and that it gives but a general idea of *Mirabeau*'s plan. This plan, profoundly conſidered, was ſtated in a memorial of about two hundred pages, of which the ſtyle, replete with eloquence and energy, was its leaſt merit.

" One of the moſt pointed paſſages of this work was the ſketch of the general diſorganization of ſociety, of which the foundations, the religious and political principles were diſſolved. *Mirabeau*, who had ſo greatly contributed to this ſubverſion, appeared more alarmed at it than

than any body. "I had not a doubt," ſaid he, "when I propoſed the conſtitutional oath for the Prieſts, that the people would declare for them againſt us. This perhaps was the only trial to be made to aſcertain what moral ſpring remained in the Nation; but there is no longer a hold on that ſide: happily they are ſtill attached through taſte and habit to the Monarchical Government. We muſt make haſte to ſave the wrecks of it, before they are completely diſperſed."

"The King was extremely aſtoniſhed on the reading of this memorial; he could not conceive that he who ſpoke thus of the Revolution had ſo long been the moſt formidable revolutioniſt.—"If *Mirabeau* is in earneſt," ſaid his Majeſty to *M. de Montmorin*, "he may doubtleſs repair part of the miſchief he has done; nevertheleſs I will not engage myſelf in any proceeding which may produce a civil war. This memorial ought to be maturely conſidered. Endeavour to collect the opinions of the moſt ſenſible men in the Aſſembly, and inquire which of them *Mirabeau* is diſpoſed to open his mind to." Vol. ii, p. 319.

The character and views of this extraordinary man are ſtill further developed in the ſubſequent pages, in which he appears propoſing and plotting the murders of De Launay, De Fleſſelles, Foulon, and Berthier, which were agreed to and arranged by a *philanthropic* committee.

In a note to p. 393, vol. iii, we meet with an anecdote highly characteriſtic of the two great Coryphæi of the Revolution, Mirabeau and La Fayette.

"In an interview between them, which had been brought about by their mutual friends to reconcile them, *Mirabeau* having for the execution of ſome plan propoſed means of a violent nature, *M. de la Fayette* ſtarted, and exclaimed: "Nay, *M. de Mirabeau*, it is impoſſible that a man of honour can employ ſuch means." "A man of honour!" replied *Mirabeau:* "Ah! *M. de la Fayette*, I ſee that you would be a *Grandiſon Cromwell*—You will ſee where ſuch a mixture will lead you."—Another time, upon a ſimilar occaſion, *M. de la Fayette* complaining bitterly of the atrocious projects which were formed againſt him by his enemies, and by *Mirabeau* himſelf, the latter called upon him to explain. "Well, then," replied *M. de la Fayette*, "I will tell you, ſince you force me to it, that I was thoroughly acquainted with your intention of having me aſſaſſinated."—"I, Sir!"—"Yes, Sir, in ſuch a place, on ſuch a day, at ſuch an hour; I was ſure of it."—"You were ſure of it!—You were ſure of it, *M. de la Fayette!* and I ſtill alive!—What a good creature you are! And you think of taking the leading part in a Revolution!"

The copious extracts already given from the preceding volumes, prevent us from enlarging on the contents of the fourth; and indeed we may obſerve, that though it is by far the moſt intereſting on the whole, it is alſo the leaſt ſuſceptible of being fairly illuſtrated by detached quotations. Various plans for the releaſe of the Royal Family are detailed, and many circum-

circumſtances related, which tend to repreſent the King in a very amiable point of view, as a man; but we are nevertheleſs induced to acknowledge, that he had not firmneſs of character ſufficient to give his virtues effect. The goodneſs of his heart perſuaded him, that he could govern by affection only; and he had not ſtudied a precept which he might now have learned, even from one of the republican incendiaries who aſſiſted to dethrone him*: "Sois fort pour etre juſte, parce que n'es pas ſur en etant juſte d'être fort."

The declaration of Pilnitz, and all the circumſtances connected with it, which are contained in the fourth volume, add ſtill further to the maſs of evidence which refutes the calumnies propagated on this ſubject. Mr. Marſh and Mr. Bowles have now ſo ably diſcuſſed, and ſo clearly aſcertained, the queſtion of aggreſſion, that unleſs to thoſe determined not to be convinced, additional proof is unneceſſary. But if there are yet tardy and unwilling converts to truth, Monſieur de Calonne's Letter, and various other documents in M. Bertrand's Annals, will clearly demonſtrate to them, that no hoſtile views towards France were entertained by the Britiſh Miniſters, till ſuggeſted by provocation, and urged by neceſſity.

We cannot conclude our remarks on this work, without again recommending it to the peruſal of every Engliſh reader. They will find in it principles which can never be too ſtrongly inculcated, and examples which ought for ever to be remembered; they will learn to fear and to ſuſpect every attempt at innovation, every approach towards diſcord and anarchy, and to diſtinguiſh the real friends of their country from vain ſyſtemiſts and needy adventurers. They will find that no reform can be permanently uſeful which commences in injuſtice; and that he who raſhly ſanctions the abolition of a prerogative, or a privilege, or of the ſmalleſt right of another, invites and juſtifies the plunder of his own.

If ſome of our readers ſhould think that M. Bertrand goes too far in his ſpeculations, on the poſſible effect which he conceives might have been produced by the adoption of the meaſures he points out, they will recollect that he had great opportunities of obſerving; and that even if his opinions are erroneous, the zeal and loyalty in which they originate entitle him to our eſteem.

The ſtyle of this work is in general eaſy, perſpicuous, and (with a few exceptions) free from Galliciſms; and we think it, on the whole, fairly entitled to rank among our beſt mo-

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* Mercier.

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dern tranſlations. There are occaſionally ſome typographical errors; ſuch as Pierre en Aiſe for Pierre en Ciſe, at the end of the ſecond volume; anarchs for anarchiſts, in the beginning of the firſt volume; Liſle and Vilaine, for the Iſle and Vilaine; and penny in the pound, wherever it occurs, ſhould be ſhilling in the pound, as we preſume the expreſſion in the original is ſol par livre, of courſe ſhilling in the pound is nearly in the ſame proportion. But we are not diſpoſed to dwell on trifles in a performance of ſo much merit and utility; and we ſhall only add, that we hope its ſucceſs will be equal to the moſt ſanguine expectations of the author.

ART. XIV. *A View of the Origin and Conduct of the War with Tippoo Sultaun; comprising a Narrative of the Operations of the Army, under the Command of Lieutenant-General George Harris, and of the Siege of Seringapatam. By Lieutenant-Colonel Alexander Beatſon, late Aid-de-Camp to the Marquis Welleſley, Governor-General of India, and Surveyor-General to the Army in the Field.* 4to. 460 pp. 1l. 11s. 6d. G. and W. Nicol. 1800.

THE ſplendid and deciſive termination of the late War in the Myſore muſt render it a ſubject of intereſt, animated by national pride, to every patriotic Briton; but in ſeeking for a narrative of his country's glory, he will be anxious to receive it from the moſt authentic channels. The preſent work appears with the ſtrongeſt recommendations to ſatisfy this laudable and well-regulated curioſity. It was compiled by Col. Beatſon, whoſe public ſervices have been repeatedly acknowledged in the higheſt terms of commendation by the Marquiſſes Cornwallis and Welleſley; and whoſe accurate obſervations made at the former Siege of Seringapatam, under Lord Cornwallis, materially contributed to the ſucceſs of this ſecond attack. We are aſſured alſo, that all the materials were inſpected and approved by Marquis Welleſley, whoſe ſanction is, in ſuch a caſe, the higheſt that can be obtained. This book may be conſidered therefore as an official report, for the authenticity of which, much more is pledged than the credit of the individual compiler.

Being informed of theſe circumſtances, we could not but feel extremely anxious, both to peruſe the account ourſelves, and to announce it to the many whoſe wiſhes are likely to be congenial with our own.

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The narrative is divided into eighteen chapters, to which is ſubjoined an Appendix, of various papers, amounting to 49 articles. The ornaments and illuſtrations of the work are, 1, A Portrait of Tippoo Sultaun, placed as a frontiſpiece, and ſaid to offer a very correct reſemblance; 2, The Order of Battle of the Army commanded by General Harris; 3, View of the N. W. Front of Seringapatam; 4, Plan of the Attack upon the North-Weſt Angle of Seringapatam; 5, Sketch of the Environs of Seringapatam; 6, Map of the Dominions of Tippoo Sultaun. The Preface is witten with great modeſty and perſpicuity, and gives ſo diſtinct a view of the origin and progreſs of the work, with the reaſons for completing it, notwithſtanding the documents that had been publiſhed before, that we are induced, contrary to our general cuſtom, to inſert it entire.

"The official documents relating to the war with Tippoo Sultaun, which have been laid before Parliament, or publiſhed by the Eaſt India Company, might be ſuppoſed to render any thing further upon the ſubject ſuperfluous. Under this impreſſion, I hefitated, after my arrival from India, to ſend to the preſs the following ſheets, upon which I had been engaged during the voyage: but it ſoon appeared, that notwithſtanding the publication of thoſe documents, ſeveral points required explanation; erroneous opinions had been formed; military operations had not been ſufficiently detailed; and few particulars had been recorded of a ſiege, the moſt brilliant and important that ever was carried on in that quarter of the globe.

"For theſe reaſons, and above all, as the work I propoſed giving to the Public, was begun under the auſpices of the Marquis Welleſley, from whom I received every aſſiſtance and encouragement; and as the ſituations in which I had been placed, through his Lordſhip's indulgence, afforded me opportunities of knowing intimately the meaſures adopted and purſued, I am induced to hope, that a faithful and impartial account, illuſtrated with Maps and Plans, comprizing, in a connected form, every circumſtance reſpecting the origin and conduct of the War, which terminated with ſo much glory and advantage to the Britiſh nation, may ſtill be favourably received, although its publication, from unavoidable delays, has been protracted to a later period than I had reaſon to expect.

"The following Narrative is partly the reſult of my own obſervation, and in part compoſed from the moſt authentic materials. It will be found to contain a conſiderable addition of new matter: but, as ſome parts of the ſubject have been anticipated, it may be proper to ſtate the circumſtances which gave riſe to the publication; and to point out thoſe advantages which it cannot fail to poſſeſs, from the aid and patronage it received from the Marquis Welleſley.

"Upon the diſcloſure of Tippoo Sultaun's hoſtile deſigns, his Lordſhip tranſmitted to the Government of Fort St. George certain queries relative to military operations in Myſore; and directed, that the anſwers ſhould be ſent to him by an officer capable of affording

ing ſuch further information as he might require. It was my peculiar good fortune to be employed on this occaſion. I was then engaged in an inveſtigation and ſurvey in the Northern Circars; and upon receiving an expreſs from the Government of Madras, I repaired to Calcutta with all poſſible expedition. After remaining a few weeks with the Governor-general, he was pleaſed to honour me with the appointment of Aid de-camp; to which, when it became neceſſary to declare war againſt Tippoo Sultaun, he added that of Surveyor-General to the Army in the Field.

"The campaign terminated with the capture of Seringapatam. There was no proſpect of further field-ſervice; and finding my health impaired, I was compelled to quit a ſituation no leſs flattering than agreeable. Having expreſſed a wiſh to return to England, the Marquis Welleſley, with the ſame friendly attention he had honoured me with upon every other occaſion, not only acquieſced, but reſolved to charge me with diſpatches which he intended to have ſent to England early in June; but a ſucceſſion of important occurrences delayed the departure of the packet until the middle of Auguſt.

"During this interval, I peruſed, with attention, all his Lordſhip's official and other papers upon the ſubject of the war: of which, for my own private information, and with his permiſſion, I made copies and extracts. The wiſdom and firmneſs diſplayed in every ſtage of his Lordſhip's meaſures, and the ability which directed the operations of the armies in the field, were univerſally allowed: but this retroſpective view exhibited, according to my judgment, a ſyſtem of political and military arrangement, ſo perfect in itſelf, as ſeemed not to admit of the ſmalleſt amendment, and excited in my mind the ſtrongeſt ſentiments of admiration. I lamented that a more detailed account had not been given of tranſactions highly honourable to all concerned: and of which very little information could be gathered from the public prints of India. The Governor-general himſelf, indeed, was undoubtedly the beſt qualified to diſcharge this duty; but his Lordſhip had not leiſure, for what muſt have required a conſiderable degree of labour and application.

"After I had completed the examination of the papers, I drew up an Abſtract, and added the moſt material events of the war from my own military journal; together with ſuch information regarding the character and government of the late Sultaun, as had been tranſmitted to the Governor-general after the fall of Seringapatam.

"Having thus brought under one view every circumſtance that appeared worthy of notice, I arranged and divided the ſubject into chapters. This Proſpectus, or Table of Contents, comprizing the heads of every occurrence, from June, 1798, until the partition and ſettlement of Myſore, together with a few chapters, compiled from the above-mentioned papers, having been ſhewn to the Governor-general, received his approbation. From that moment he gave me every encouragement to proſecute the work; and though it was with diffidence undertaken, yet I had the ſatisfaction to complete it during the paſſage from India.

"On this occaſion, my particular acknowledgments are due to the Hon. Henry Welleſley, for the very friendly and able aſſiſtance I received

ceived from him during the paſſage, in the communication of many curious and intereſting anecdotes reſpecting the late Sultaun, which his official ſituation enabled him to collect at Seringapatam; and from his diſcernment, in removing whatever doubts had ariſen in my mind, reſpecting the application and uſe of certain parts of the Governor-generals correſpondence.

"Since my return to England, I have to acknowledge my obligations to Sir Stephen Luſhington and Mr. Inglis the Chairmen, and to Mr. Scott the Deputy Chairman, of the Court of Directors, for the liberal encouragement and aſſiſtance I have received through their kindneſs and attention. To theſe gentlemen, I am peculiarly indebted for acceſs to whatever documents I had occaſion to refer: which have enabled me to elucidate various points, and to bring up my Narrative to the lateſt period.

"Such are the advantages I have had in the proſecution of this work. I am aware, however, it may be found to have its imperfections; yet I truſt, from my inexperience in literary compoſition, it will be received with indulgence. Whatever may be its fate, one conſolation I ſhall always feel; that I have ſpared no labour to render it as faithful and impartial a record as can poſſibly be given, of all thoſe tranſactions which led to the deſtruction of Tippoo Sultaun's power, and to the reſtoration of the ancient family of Myſore." P. v.

The firſt chapter of this work very ſatisfactorily explains the juſtice of the war, by ſhowing that Tippoo had, without any provocation on our part, courted the alliance of the French, for the expreſs purpoſe of expelling the Engliſh from India. The fourth article of his requeſts to the French, as publiſhed in a proclamation of Malartic, Governor of the Iſlands of France and Reunion, ſtates that, "in a word, he only waits the moment when the French ſhall come to his aſſiſtance, to declare war againſt the Engliſh, whom he ardently deſires to expel from India." App. p. ii.

The authenticity of this proclamation was ſuſpected at firſt by the Governor-General, but an account of the proceedings of Tippoo's ambaſſadors in the Iſle of France, and the actual reception of troops ſent from thence to his aid, removed all poſſibility of doubt. This being decided, the Governor loſt no time in ordering our armies to aſſemble, and taking ſuch ſteps as were neceſſary to confirm and improve our alliances with the native powers. One of the moſt important and maſterly proceedings in this preliminary, was the ſtipulating with the Nizam, that he ſhould increaſe the Britiſh detachment ſerving at Hyderabad, and diſmiſs the corps commanded by French officers in his ſervice. The latter part of the ſtipulation was carried into execution by a detachment from Madras, under Lieutenant-Colonel Roberts. The particulars of this very able proceeding deſerve to be given in detail.

"The

"The Britiſh detachment was placed under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Roberts. It reached Hyderabad on the 10th of October, and on the 22d of the ſame month, under the order of his Highneſs the Nizam, and with the co-operation of a body of his cavalry, it ſurrounded the camp of the French army, diſarmed all the ſepoys, and ſecured the perſons of all the French officers then in camp. This operation was happily effected without bloodſhed, and without conteſt. A mutiny having broken out in the French camp on the preceding day, and the ſepoys having impriſoned their officers, the Reſident at Hyderabad, and Lieutenant-colonel Roberts, with the conſent of the Nizam, judiciouſly availed themſelves of this favourable opportunity to execute the important meaſure entruſted to him, without difficulty or danger.

"The amount of the French force diſarmed on this occaſion was about eleven thouſand men. The remainder of the corps having been ſent on detachments, at ſome diſtance from Hyderabad, was ſoon afterwards ſecured and diſbanded.

"The French officers were treated with every practicable degree of attention and humanity. At the period of their arreſt by our troops, their perſons were in confinement, and their lives in danger from the mutiny prevailing in their camp; and the greateſt difficulty which Colonel Roberts encountered was that of reſcuing the impriſoned officers from the violence of their own ſepoys. Particular care was taken to ſave the property of the officers for their uſe, as well as to obtain for them ſuch arrears of pay and allowances as were due to them from his Highneſs. Captain Kirkpatrick, the acting Reſident, was completely ſucceſsful in effecting both theſe deſirable objects. The French officers were ſent to Bengal on board the Bombay frigate, which had been previouſly ſtationed at Maſulipatam for their accommodation; and on their arrival at Calcutta, they were received with the conſideration due to their reſpective ranks, and allowed every indulgence compatible with the ſecurity of their perſons.

"The ſucceſs of this enterpriſe was at that moment a circumſtance of peculiar good fortune, ſince it ſecured to us whatever benefits might be derived from the cordial co-operation of the Nizam in the event of a war with Tippoo Sultaun. How far his Lordſhip's hopes were fulfilled, will be ſeen in the courſe of this narrative. The entire ſubverſion of the French influence was certainly a very important benefit, at a moment when the adventurous and enterpriſing ſpirit of that nation was directed to the object of raiſing an empire in India on the ruin of the Britiſh power.

"The ſubſidiary force ſtationed with his Highneſs the Nizam, while it tends to cement the connexion between the Company and that Prince, and render him a more uſeful and efficient ally, muſt operate at all times as an effectual protection to our poſſeſſions in the Northern Circars: and the total removal of the French force from the Decan, under all circumſtances, is an event from which additional ſecurity may be expected, not only to the Britiſh poſſeſſions on the peninſula, but to the general tranquillity of India." P. 24.

Notwithſtanding theſe vigorous meaſures for ſecuring the Britiſh intereſts in caſe of hoſtilities, no meaſures were neglected

ed to induce Tippoo to give up his dangerous plans, and return to a peaceful connection with us. Evaſion and procraſtination were the return made by him for all endeavours towards arrangement; and the Governor-General, who was not to be deceived by arts of this kind, continued his preparations with vigour. The reflections of Col. Beatſon on theſe proceedings are ſo judicious, that we are perſuaded they will give ſatisfaction to our readers.

"From the firſt diſcloſure of the nature and object of Tippoo Sultaun's embaſſy to the Iſle of France, every principle of juſtice and policy demanded from the Governor general, that an inſtantaneous effort ſhould be made to reduce his power and reſources, before he could avail himſelf of the advantages of the alliance which he had concluded. The defect of means was the ſole conſideration which prevented the Marquis Welleſley from making that effort at the early period when its ſucceſs would have placed the ſecurity of our poſſeſſions on a foundation, which the invaſion of India by a French force could not have impaired; for without the aid of ſome native power, it is ſcarcely poſſible that the French ſhould ever make any permanent impreſſion on the Britiſh empire in India; and no native power, excepting Tippoo Sultaun, was at that period ſo infatuated as to be diſpoſed to aſſiſt, or to receive a French army.

"The progreſs of events ſubſequent to the Governor-general's orders of the 20th of June, 1798, has not only confirmed the principles of juſtice and policy by which an attack upon the Sultaun was at that time demanded; but has manifeſted that the deſigns of France, as well as of the Sultaun, were of a much more extenſive and formidable nature, than any which have ever been projected againſt the Britiſh Empire in India, ſince the hour of its firſt foundation.

"While the magnitude and danger of theſe deſigns were gradually diſcloſed, it afforded the higheſt degree of ſatisfaction to the Governor-general, to find that his means of averting them were augmenting in a proportion nearly equal, by the ſucceſs of the negotiations at Hyderabad, and by the progreſs of the military preparations which his Lordſhip had ordered throughout our poſſeſſions in India.

"At the commencement of the month of February, the criſis arrived in which the Governor-general was called upon to form his ultimate deciſion on the important queſtion at iſſue with Tippoo Sultaun, and to determine the final reſult of the whole ſyſtem of thoſe meaſures which his Lordſhip had adopted.

"On the one hand, the apparent eſtabliſhment of the French army in Egypt, and the uncertainty of the ſtate of our naval power in the Red Sea, rendered the danger ſtill urgent from that quarter; whilſt Tippoo Sultaun's repeated evaſions of every propoſal for negotiation, combined with his embaſſy to the Executive Directory of France, under the conduct of M. Dubuc, appeared to preclude all hope of detaching the Sultaun from his recent alliance with the enemy. On the other hand, the Governor-general now poſſeſſed ample means of fruſtrating the moſt dangerous efforts of that alliance, by a ſeaſonable application

plication of the powerful force which the treachery and aggreſſion of the Sultaun had compelled him to collect at a heavy expence to the finances of the East-India Company.

" In this ſtate of affairs, his Lordſhip's orders of the 3d of February, to commence hoſtilities againſt the Sultaun, will ſurely not be deemed premature; neither would he have been juſtified, on the 13th of that month, upon receiving the Sultaun's letter, in recalling thoſe orders, for the purpoſe of admitting, at that late period, a negotiation which would have enabled Tippoo Sultaun to defeat every object of the armament of the allies for that ſeaſon, and might have afforded him ample time to reap the full benefit of his connection with France, before the ſeaſon for beſieging his capital ſhould return." P. 40.

Theſe introductory matters occupy the firſt five chapters of the work. In the ſixth the author opens the plan, and begins the narrative of the campaign. The army of Bombay marched from Cannanore on the 21ſt of February, 1799; that of Madras had aſſembled at Vellore in January, but from unavoidable delays did not move towards Myſore till the 11th of February. The whole army united under General Harris, conſiſted of 30,959 fighting men, excluſive of 6,000 of the Nizam's cavalry, and was moſt completely equipped and ſupplied. Chapters ſix, ſeven, and eight, detail the proceedings of the army, the ninth contains the great event of the capture of Seringapatam. The particulars of the ſiege are well and clearly related by Col. Beatſon; but extend too far for us to inſert them here. The three following chapters carry on the narrative reſpecting Seringapatam, and the ſtate in which it was found, in all reſpects, after the capture. The following reflections on the fall of Tippoo, and ſketch of his character, as far as could be collected from his late conduct, are well deſerving of notice.

" The fate of Tippoo Sultaun affords an awful example of the inſtability of human power, unſupported by juſtice or moderation; and though its effects upon his unoffending family cannot be contemplated without ſtrong emotions of compaſſion, the example, thus heightened by misfortune, may prove the more ſalutary to the princes of India, by impreſſing on their minds a deeper ſenſe of the danger of violating public engagements, and of inviting foreign invaders to aſſiſt them in ſchemes for the deſtruction of the Britiſh power in that quarter.

" No materials have yet come into our poſſeſſion, from which the character of Tippoo Sultaun can be accurately deduced. During the laſt ſeven years of his life, his conduct had been a continued ſcene of folly, caprice, and weakneſs. He appears to have been accompliſhed, and his favourite employment, of late, was to write memoranda of the moſt trivial occurrences. He was fond of reading, ſcrupulouſly attentive to matters of religion, and a rigid chaſtiſer of drunkeneſs and other vices.

" All

" All his actions of recent date ſeem to have proceeded from the impulſe of the moment; and it is impoſſible to trace any one fixed principle on which he regulated his conduct. His arrangements in every department conveyed the idea of an unſettled and capricious mind. Every year, often every month, preſented a new change of ſyſtem; and before it was at all comprehended, a freſh plan was introduced, and as quickly abandoned: a particular ſet of features, or caſt of countenance, was ſufficient to raiſe one man from obſcurity to ſplendour, and to precipitate another from honour to diſgrace. His government may be ſaid to have been in a ſtate of inceſſant revolution; and, notwithſtanding the minuteneſs and ſeverity of his regulations, no prince was ever ſo groſsly impoſed upon. He does not appear, like the generality of Indian princes, to have been fond of hoarding his treaſures; but, on the contrary, his pride was to have a number of dependents; and his indifference to the peculations of his ſervants was altogether unaccountable.

" It is hardly poſſible to ſuppoſe that he wiſhed to introduce the principle of equality among his ſubjects; but he diſguſted all the men of rank, and his father's old ſervants, by an indiſcriminate and capricious mixture of men of the loweſt rank, with thoſe of family and long ſervices. He would promote a Tipdar (commander of a hundred men) or a petty Aumildar, to be a Meer Meeran (the higheſt military rank) and raiſe a Riſaldar* to the honours of a Meer Aſof†, or a wretched Killedar, on the monthly pay of 10 pagodas, to thoſe of a Meer Suddoor‡.

" During the whole of the ſiege, he appears to have laboured under an infatuation, that Seringapatam§ was impregnable; and this idea was confirmed by the conſtant reports of his courtiers, who perſuaded him, till within an hour of the aſſault, " *that the Engliſh would be obliged to raiſe the ſiege from want of proviſions, and that their ſhot had produced little effect on the walls.*" In the morning of the 4th, however, on examing the works himſelf, his natural perception diſcovered to him the danger of his ſituation; but he never ſeems to have had an idea of yielding up his capital, even in the laſt extremity.

" In ſhort, the whole of his conduct, ſince the year 1792, proves him to have been a weak, headſtrong, and tyrannical prince; influenced in his views, both foreign and domeſtic, by a reſtleſs and implacable ſpirit, and totally unequal to the government of a kingdom, which had been uſurped by the hardineſs, intrigues, and talents of his father‖.

" Tippoo

" * Commander of ten to a hundred horſe.

" † A member of the Board of Revenue.

" ‡ Superintendant-general of forts, &c. alſo a member of the ordnance, or rather board of works.

" § The Sultaun's conſtant expreſſion upon every occaſion was, who can take Seringapatam!

" ‖ I am indebted chiefly to the Marquis Welleſley for the materials from which this ſketch of the character of Tippoo Sultaun has

" Tippoo Sultaun appears to have been born in the year 1749*. His ſtature was about five feet eight inches; he had a ſhort neck, ſquare ſhoulders, and was rather corpulent: his limbs were ſmall, particularly his feet and hands; he had large full eyes, ſmall arched eyebrows, and an aquiline noſe; his complexion was brown, and the general expreſſion of his countenance not void of dignity.

" It is related by Hubbeeb Oollah†, and Rajah Cawn‡, both of whom were well acquainted with the Sultaun's character, that in the life-time of his father he was univerſally eſteemed by the miniſters and favourites of Hyder's court, who had formed the moſt ſanguine expectations of his reign; but from the moment he aſcended the muſnud thoſe fair appearances began to decline, and his conduct from that period ſeemed to be directed wholly by ambition, pride, caprice, and cruelty.

" The Britiſh government, in particular, was the object of his irreconcileable hatred; which he often expreſſed in public, and eſpecially on one occaſion in his Durbar, when he declared, " that a nice ſenſe of honour ſhould be the predominant feature in the character of a king; and that one who had ſuffered misfortunes from the ſuperiority of his enemies, ſhould never be appeaſed until he had obtained ample revenge. That, for his part, he ſhould every day ſeek the moſt likely means for effecting the ruin of his enemies, and that his mind was principally occupied in the contemplation of this object. The means I have taken (he added) to keep in remembrance the misfortune I experienced ſix years ago§, from the malice of my enemies, are to diſcontinue ſleeping in a cotton bed, and to make uſe of a cloth one: when I am victorious, I ſhall reſume the bed of cotton."

" After the peace of 1792, ſome of his counſellors ſtrongly urged him to diſcharge the ſuperfluous perſons attached to the different departments of his government, and to diminiſh the extent of his military eſtabliſhment; without which, his receipts would never be adequate to his expences. He replied, " theſe people are fed by God, not by me;" and he never would liſten to ſuggeſtions for reducing any part of his eſtabliſhments.

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been drawn. As it appeared to be the moſt accurate delineation of any which had come to my hands, it is now offered to the public, in the hope that it may not prove unacceptable. More particulars of the Sultaun's character will probably be gathered from the numerous original documents found in his palace, and now in the poſſeſſion of the Governor-general.

" * According to a manuſcript hiſtory of Hyder Alli, in the poſſeſſion of Major Allan, which correſponds nearly with the age Tippoo Saib was ſaid to be at the time he commanded a detachment of his father's army, in 1768.

" † The Sultaun's principal Moonſhy, or ſecretary.

" ‡ His favourite ſervant.

" § Alluding to the conqueſts of Marquis Cornwallis."

" He was fond of riding, and particularly excelled in horſemanſhip; he diſapproved of palanquins, hackeries*, and all ſuch conveyances, as proper only for women. In his dreſs he was remarkably plain; he uſually wore a ſword ſlung acroſs his body, with a dagger in his girdle. Whenever he went abroad, either on horſeback or otherwiſe, he was accompanied by a numerous body of attendants, carrying muſkets and fowling pieces; and with this retinue, he ſometimes appeared on the ramparts during the ſiege.

" His thoughts were conſtantly bent on war and military preparations. He has been frequently heard to ſay, that in this world he would rather live two days like a tiger, than two hundred years like a ſheep. He adopted as the emblem of his ſtate, and as a ſpecies of armorial bearing, the figure of the royal tiger, whoſe head and ſtripes conſtituted the chief ornaments of his throne, and of almoſt every article which belonged to him." P. 149.

It is mentioned in chapter twelve, that the library of Tippoo Sultaun conſiſted of about 2000 volumes, in the various branches of Aſiatic literature; and an extenſive collection of original ſtate-papers, of a nature moſt intereſting and important.

" Theſe valuable documents," continues Col. Beatſon, " conſtitute a ſufficient ſtock of materials for a complete hiſtory of the reigns of Hyder Alli Khan and Tippoo Sultaun; and the proofs which they afford of the ſyſtematic and unremitting ardour with which the late Sultaun laboured at the ſubverſion of the Britiſh power in India, are numerous, and of the moſt unequivocal kind. As ſome account of theſe documents will ſerve, further, to develope the character of Tippoo Sultaun, it ſeems proper to give it in this place, before I proceed to detail the important events which immediately followed the capture of Seringapatam.

" All the records which were found in the palace, are now in the poſſeſſion of the Marquis Welleſley; and as his lordſhip intends to have the whole tranſlated as ſoon as poſſible, the public may expect, in a ſhort time, to be preſented with a work not leſs curious than intereſting." P. 179.

The remaining chapters of the work, containing the tranſactions ſubſequent to the taking of Seringapatam, are neceſſary to the completion of the narrative, and by no means void of intereſt. The whole forms a publication very creditable to the compiler, and ſuch as cannot fail to be highly acceptable to his countrymen.

" * A covered carriage drawn by a pair of bullocks."

ART. XV. *Journey from India towards England, in the Year 1797, by a Route commonly called Overland, through Countries not much frequented, and many of them hitherto unknown to Europeans; particularly between the Rivers Euphrates and Tigris, through Curdiſtan, Diarbek, Armenia, and Natolia, in Aſia; and through Romalia, Bulgaria, Wallachia, Tranſylvania, &c. in Europe. Illuſtrated by a Map, and other Engravings. By John Jackſon, Eſq.* 8vo. 277 pp. 7s. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

THE ordinary route overland from India has been hitherto either up the Red Sea to Suez, thence to Cairo, from Cairo to ſome Italian port, and then through Germany, &c. or up the Perſian Gulph to Buſſorah, and thence over the Great Deſert to Aleppo, afterwards to Conſtantinople, &c.

The preſent journal points out another route, but replete with ſo much difficulty and danger, and requiring ſo much perſonal intrepidity, and above all ſuch extraordinary ſtrength of conſtitution, that few individuals, enervated by the climate of India, will, we preſume, be prevailed upon to undertake it. In the preſent inſtance, three gentlemen attempted it in company with Mr. Jackſon; but he alone had ſtrength and perſeverance to accompliſh the Journey.

To whoever ſhall undertake to come from India to Europe by the way of Bagdad, rather than by Aleppo, the author gives the following directions:

"At Buſſora, he ſhould equip himſelf in all reſpects like the Arabs. It will be neceſſary for him, as ſoon as he embarks, or even before, to ſuffer his beard to grow; but, as it may be uncomfortable to wear his beard at full length, it will be ſufficient if he do but preſerve his muſtaches. This, however, muſt be particularly attended to, and can by no means be diſpenſed with; for, though a man without a beard might be ſafe in a large city, or in any civilized place, yet in a journey of this nature, wherein he will often meet with barbarous wandering tribes, who would not heſitate a moment about putting him to death if they ſhould diſcover that he was a Fringui*, he will perceive the neceſſity of imitating the Arabs in dreſs as nearly as poſſible.

"As few Europeans have any knowledge of the Arabic language, particularly as it is ſpoken in Arabia, he will be much at a loſs, eſpecially when he has none but Arabs about him. He will, therefore,

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"* A term applied to Chriſtians in general. The Arabs call Europe Fringuiſtan."

find it uſeful to have with him a kind of vocabulary, to enable him to aſk uſeful or neceſſary queſtions.

" While the author was proceeding up the Euphrates, the Hie, and the Tigris, he compiled a ſmall vocabulary for his own uſe, which he found afterwards of infinite ſervice.

" When the traveller arrives at Bagdad, he will find that the Engliſh are more reſpected than any other nation; he will therefore feel the neceſſity of acting in the moſt honourable manner in every tranſaction, that he may ſupport the dignity of the national character; for ſuch is the illiberal way of thinking among theſe people, that ſhould an individual of any country act meanly, the people would condemn all his nation; and the bad conduct of one perſon might thus endanger the lives of hundreds of his countrymen, who might adopt the ſame route.

" From Bagdad there is but one mode of travelling, which is under the guidance and protection of the Tatars, or meſſengers of government. Theſe men are under the immediate orders of the Baſhaw and his miniſters; but are at all times ready to enter into any contract with an individual, which they uſually make very profitable to themſelves, particularly when they have to conduct thoſe who are enabled to obtain firmauns*; for, by virtue of theſe, the Tatars are enabled to take ſeveral horſes and attendants, and a large quantity of merchandize on their return, which pays them very well. In the author's firmaun it was intimated that he was an Engliſh Conſul, which enabled his Tatar to obtain guards (free of expence) whenever there was danger to be apprehended from the wandering tribes. This is by far the ſafeſt way of travelling, as the perſon of a conſul is ſeldom inſulted.

" Great care, however, ſhould be taken when an agreement is about to be made with a Tatar. It is adviſable to pay him only half of the money agreed for at Bagdad, that he may have an intereſt in delivering the traveller ſafe at Conſtantinople. Care ſhould be taken alſo, that the Tatar does not engage to carry merchandize for any one, which he will do if poſſible.

" The neceſſaries which the traveller takes ſhould be compreſſed into as narrow a compaſs as poſſible. A little tea, coffee, and ſugar, will be ſerviceable in the winter ſeaſon; and ſome ſpirits, either brandy or Hollands, may be uſeful; but he ſhould by no means be encumbered with either of theſe in ſummer, as it would be highly dangerous to drink any ſpirits in that climate in the heat of that ſeaſon. The author himſelf drank very little beſide water and milk, between Buſſora and Conſtantinople.

" The traveller ſhould be equipped in the ſame manner as the Tatar, which will always enſure him reſpect. Some have attempted to travel under the character of the Tatar's ſervants (the Armenian merchants in particular do this); but the author conſiders it as too degrading for the character of an Engliſhman. The Tatars, who are accuſtomed to travel very faſt, uſually ride the hindmoſt horſe of the

" * Theſe give the Tatar and traveller a great deal of authority over the people, particularly over thoſe who are appointed by government to accommodate the Tatars."

company, and whip the other beaſts to keep them going. This ſhould never be permitted; but whoever attempts a journey of this kind ſhould be a good horſeman.

" The traveller ought not to encumber himſelf with ſpecie, except about half a dozen piaſtres, to give as preſents to thoſe who may render ſome little ſervices. He will, it is true, be often ſolicited for gifts, but ſhould always refer the applicants to his Tatar; and when they find that, they will not apply a ſecond time. It is much more prudent to take bills drawn by the merchants, which will uſually meet due honour, while they offer no temptation to robbers." P. x.

The country with which Europeans are leaſt acquainted in the track which Mr. Jackſon followed, is that which lies between the Euphrates and the Tigris; but of this he could ſee very little, as he went in a canal connecting the two rivers, in a country veſſel, and was not able to make any excurſion far from its banks. The narrative is nevertheleſs lively and intereſting throughout; and ſome entertaining anecdotes of manners and characters are interſperſed. The following is too ſingular to be omitted.

" A Frenchman was carrying diſpatches to India, acroſs the Great Deſert, from Aleppo to Buſſora. He had with him an Interpreter, and an eſcort of about eighty men, moſtly on camels. When about five days journey from Buſſora, they were attacked in the evening by a wandering tribe of Arabs. The Meſſenger had a double-barrelled gun, with which he ſhot the Sheik of the hoſtile party; but they ruſhed with ſuch fury at the firſt onſet, that before he had time to charge again, he was cut down with a ſabre. Moſt of the Meſſenger's guards being killed, they were ſtripped by the conquerors, and the Meſſenger among the reſt, it being imagined that he was dead. After the engagement, the Arabs lighted fires to make coffee and refreſh themſelves; and, as is cuſtomary with them, ſat on the ground in a circle round the fire.

" The Meſſenger's wound not proving mortal, (for though he had one ſide of his face cut down, his ſkull was not materially injured) he at length recovered his ſenſes; and finding himſelf entirely naked, as well as much weakened by the loſs of blood, he had nearly given himſelf up to deſpair. But, recollecting to have heard of this ſingular diſpoſition in the Arabs, he reſolved to try the experiment, as the only means of ſaving his life, or putting an end to his exiſtence. He took a view of the Arabs ſitting round the fire, and ſingled out him whom he thought moſt likely to be the Chief, as being the oldeſt-looking man in the company. Naked as he was, and almoſt covered with blood, he ruſhed into the ring, and threw himſelf at his feet. His conjecture was right. This old man was the Chief, who immediately covered him with his cloak. He was now at a loſs for an Interpreter; but, on ſearch being made, the Interpreter was found in a ſimilar ſituation, wounded, but not dangerouſly. The Meſſenger had his clothes and diſpatches returned to him; and the Chief entered into an agreement to deliver him ſafe at Buſſora, on the Meſſenger promiſing

to

to pay him one hundred Venetian ſequins. Both parties performed their agreement; the Meſſenger arrived ſafe, and had engaged a dow to take him to Muſcat. This having reached the Engliſh Reſident's ears, he ſeized the Meſſenger with his diſpatches, and had his wounds dreſſed by the Engliſh Surgeon. It was imagined that the Meſſenger, if ſuffered to proceed, would not have reached India, as his wounds required much ſurgical aſſiſtance." P. 68.

As we do not recollect any deſcription of modern Bagdad, the following may be acceptable.

" Bagdad is ſeated on the eaſtern banks of the Tigris. It is a large and populous city, extending along the banks of the river about three miles; and the length of the walls from the river being about two miles, gives it the form of an oblong ſquare. The houſes, though very inferior to the European, are much better built than thoſe of Buſſora, but nearly in the ſame ſtile.

" Many of the public-buildings, ſuch as moſques, minarets, and hummums, are conſtructed of hewn ſtone, and make a very handſome appearance. Here is alſo an extenſive Bazar, which is well ſupplied with variety of articles; but the prices in general are much higher than at Buſſora.

" The Armenians are the principal merchants here; the manufactories carried on are few, and thoſe confined to articles for immediate uſe, as ſhoes, boots, clothes, ſadlery, and culinary utenſils.

" The Armenians at Moſul ſend great quantities of copper down the Tigris to Bagdad upon rafts of timber faſtened together. On their arrival the rafts are ſold, wood being very ſcarce here. The copper is afterwards ſhipped for Buſſora on-board large dows, which are uſually about ſix months in performing the voyage thither and back again. The copper is in ſmall round cakes about ſix inches broad, and nearly two inches thick in the middle, but gradually ſloping to the edges. It is of a quality nearly the ſame as Engliſh battery cake copper.

" This trade, which has not long been carried on, is faſt increaſing to a very great extent; for ſometimes ſhips ſail from Buſſora laden almoſt entirely with copper; and I am perſuaded that it will in time prove prejudicial to the Engliſh manufactories. Labour being much cheaper in theſe countries than in Europe, they are enabled to carry it to a market at a much cheaper rate; and this makes it very profitable to thoſe at preſent concerned in it.

" Though Bagdad is much better built than any other city in this part of the world, it is ſtill very inferior to many cities in Europe. Every houſe wears the appearance of a priſon, as deſcribed in Buſſora, but compoſed of better materials; they are in general of brick, and the timbers very good, being thoſe which are floated down the Tigris.

" The ſtreets are very narrow and duſty. I had near half a mile to go every night to ſleep, and uſually ſet out about eleven o'clock, always taking a Turkiſh ſervant with a lanthern, as it would have been very dangerous to walk at ſuch a time without a light. Scorpions, tarantulas, and other noxious inſects, were very numerous. Of the former

former I have frequently killed four or five in a night; they are of the large black kind, and their ſtings often prove mortal.

" All perſons at this ſeaſon of the year ſleep on the tops of their houſes; and I have often been entertained by ſeeing the people run off with their clothes in their hands at ſun-riſe; for as ſoon as it has riſen above the horizon it becomes exceſſively hot. I ſoon learned, however, that even looking over our own parapet-wall was a deed of danger; for that the Turks would not heſitate a moment to ſhoot at any perſon whom they might diſcover overlooking their houſes. The houſe where I ſlept was near the middle of the city, and very lofty, none being higher in the city, except the minarets, the ſeraglio, and a few houſes belonging to the miniſters and principal officers.

" Here are many cranes, much larger and very different from any that we have in Europe. They build their neſts upon the tops of the minarets, and the loftieſt houſes, where they are never moleſted, and are in conſequence very tame. I have often been within two yards of their neſts without exciting in them any fear.

" As there are no canals to water the city, many poor people are conſtantly employed in carrying water from the river in ſkins. Some take it on their backs, while others have aſſes and mules.

" Without the walls, to the weſtward, is entirely deſert, not having the leaſt traces of vegetation, except on the banks of the river. Behind the city, to the northward, the ſame barrenneſs prevails; there is no water nor any cultivation. To the eaſtward, along the banks of the river, there are excellent gardens, which extend about four miles; and a great many houſes filled with inhabitants ſtand without the walls.

" The city, however, is chiefly ſupplied with fruits and vegetables from the oppoſite ſide of the river, where there is much cultivation.

" The Baſhaw and ſome of the principal people have country ſeats in this neighbourhood. This was the ſcite of ancient Seleucia, built by Seleucus, one of Alexander's generals, who ſucceeded to the government of this part of the country; and ſeveral of his coins are ſtill to be met with in Bagdad. The gold coin is worth about two guineas; it bears as ſtrong an impreſſion of the head as the ancient Roman coins, but has a long beard.

" A little farther, towards Hilla, are ſtill to be ſeen ſome ruins of ancient Babylon." P. 91.

The author's title-page circumſtantially explains the track of country through which he paſſed, with what rapidity the reader may gueſs from the following paragraph: " From the night of the 25th of Auguſt to the evening of the 31ſt, I had travelled ſix hundred and ſeventy-two Engliſh miles." Much delineation of people, places, or manners, cannot therefore be reaſonably expected. Yet the writer ſeems to have availed himſelf fully of ſuch ſources of information as preſented themſelves, and has certainly produced an entertaining volume. A chart of the route is prefixed; and ſome plates, by no means ill executed, are added. The concluſion of Mr. Jackſon, on comparing

comparing the different routes from India, that by way of Suez being of courſe out of the queſtion, is that the leaſt expenſive, is that by way of the Great Deſert to Aleppo, from thence to Conſtantinople, and afterwards by Vienna to Hamburgh; but that the way by Bagdad is the quickeſt, in caſe of neceſſity.

ART. XVI. *Sermons on the following Subjects: On the Clerical Character. On Superſtition. On Miracles. On Submiſſion to the exiſting Powers. On the Love of Pleaſure. On Temperance. On the temporal Diſadvantages of Vice. On Happineſs. On evangelical Righteouſneſs. On Juſtice. By the Rev. Richard Graves, M. A. Rector of Claverton, Somerſet; late Fellow of All Soul's College, Oxford; and Chaplain to the Counteſs Dowager of Chatham. To which is added, a Letter from a Father to his Son at the Univerſity.* 8vo. 218 pp. 5s. Rivingtons, &c. 1799.

THE author of theſe diſcourſes, whoſe poetical and humourous productions are too well-known to be here enumerated*, informs us, that as a relaxation after the fatigues of an irkſome employment, he has "within theſe twenty years been the *editor* of nearly that number of volumes, of a lighter and merely amuſing kind, though by no means, he truſts, unfriendly either to religion or virtue." (Pref.) That they have been very friendly to both, we atteſt with ſatisfaction. He now "thinks it not amiſs, even in regard to decency, to give this proof at leaſt, ſuch as it is, that he has not been totally inattentive to the duties of his profeſſion." (Ib.) We honour his motive for this publication, and proceed to examine it with preposſeſſions by no means unfavourable.

The firſt Sermon, on 1 Theſſ. v, 6, preached at a viſitation, ſtates very juſtly, that "the diſtinguiſhing character, as well as the chief cauſe, of the profligacy of the preſent age, ſeems to be a total indifference in reſpect to religion, an inattention to things ſerious, and a prevailing diſregard to the precepts of the Goſpel." (P. 2.) Hence is deduced "the peculiar obligation we of the clergy are under, firſt, to *vigilance* in our profeſſion; and ſecondly, to *ſobriety*, or a decent ſeverity in our manners and our example." (P. 3.) Under the firſt head, we read,

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* Namely, Euphroſyne, 2 vols, Spiritual Quixote, &c. &c.

"Here,

"Here, then, ſeems to be the moſt proper field for our vigilance and circumſpection. Before we can hope to reform men's practices, we muſt endeavour to rectify their principles. Morality can have no ſolid foundation but upon religion; "Jeſus Chriſt," that is, the Chriſtian religion, being "the chief corner-ſtone." We muſt endeavour therefore, by all means, to convince them of the fundamentals at leaſt of our faith, however captious they may be about the myſterious or controverted parts of it. If they acknowledge the being, the providence, and the perfections of God, let them be ſhewn likewiſe the corruption of man, and the neceſſity of a Redeemer to reſtore him to the favour of his Maker. Let them reflect upon the dark and perplexed ſtate of religion and morality in the heathen world, and how probable it was, that God ſhould "ſend forth his light and his truth" to guide his bewildered creatures in their way to virtue and happineſs. And if, in conſequence of this, we can but convince them of the divine miſſion (the incarnation and reſurrection) of Jeſus Chriſt, it will be eaſy to prove the duty of acquieſcing under any difficulties, which men of little (and but little) penetration may eaſily raiſe againſt ſo complicated a ſcheme as that of our redemption; or againſt the books that contain the hiſtory of it." P. 15.

Under the ſecond head, a decent ſeverity of manners is thus inculcated upon the clergy:

"However, though all things are lawful unto us, "all things may not be expedient." Prudence and decency may recommend what no law has enjoined. We ſhould allow ſomething to the opinions of others, though they may be erroneous, and condeſcend to the ſcruples, nay, even to the weakneſſes of our brethren. A good commander will not only ſet a good example to his ſoldiers in what he commands them to perform, but will ſubmit to hardſhips which might diſcourage thoſe below him, when he leads them on to any glorious undertaking. And can we think any thing too difficult to be undergone, for promoting the great end which our profeſſion has in view—the temporal and eternal happineſs of our fellow creatures? Much leſs ſhould we repine at thoſe trifling reſtraints, to which, either to avoid giving offence or to recommend our doctrine to others, we may be obliged to ſubmit. For we muſt conſider, that, however diſſolute the generality of the world may be in practice, they are yet rigid enough in ſpeculation; I mean, when their neighbour's conduct is the ſubject of their ſcrutiny. And even thoſe that can allow themſelves in the greateſt irregularities, will not fail to cenſure the ſmalleſt offences in other men. From thoſe eſpecially, that are appointed as preachers of righteouſneſs, they will expect a greater degree of perfection than from ordinary Chriſtians. In every art or ſcience, not only a greater ſkill, but a more faultleſs execution, is required from the maſters in thoſe ſciences. And in the practice of religious duties particularly, "the diſciple will be ſo far from thinking himſelf obliged to be above his maſter, that he will think it more than enough to be as his maſter." A ſuperiority in practiſing the duties of the Goſpel will not only be granted, but expected from us. And though we do our beſt, we muſt expect others to fall

fall as far ſhort of our example, as we do of the perfect rules of the Goſpel. We ſhould endeavour, therefore, that our pattern be as perfect as poſſible, that thoſe who copy after us may not have any defects in this, as well as in their own want of ability, to diſcourage them. In ſhort, though we may be thought by the world too rigid perhaps in our precepts, we ſhall never be thought ſo in our practice. Nay, our ſlighteſt failings and infirmities will be aggravated or miſrepreſented; much leſs can we hope for any indulgence to our voluntary neglects or irregularities. Even thoſe freedoms which we may be ſometimes tempted to indulge ourſelves in from laudable motives, from a proper deference to our ſuperiors, to gratify our equals, or to gain the good-will of our inferiors, will infallibly be made uſe of as objections to the ſanctity of our characters; or, at leaſt, will be produced as a plauſible ſanction for the greater irregularities in their own conduct. Our bleſſed Saviour himſelf could not eſcape the opprobrious titles of "a glutton and a wine-bibber;" merely from his ſometimes frequenting (with the moſt gracious deſign) the occaſional entertainments of his friends and countrymen.

"How cautious then ought *we* to be in our conduct, even with regard to the indifferent things of common life; we had better be too indulgent to others than to ourſelves. It may be prudent ſometimes to connive at the weakneſſes of our brethren, but can never be ſo to overlook any frailties or imperfections in our own characters; eſpecially if we are concerned to retrieve the honour of our holy religion, in an age that ſeems inclined to explain away the rigour of its laws, and to reconcile every kind of indulgence to the precepts of Chriſtianity. We ſhould prove, by the ſtrictneſs of our lives, that nothing is required of us in the Goſpel but what is practicable; and by the cheerfulneſs of them, that nothing is enjoined us but what will contribute to our preſent, as well as to our future happineſs.

"To conclude, if there be really any foundation for the frequent complaints of the decay of true piety, of the ſupineneſs and indifference of too great a part of mankind with regard to the duties of Chriſtianity; this is certainly the ſtrongeſt motive for exerting our utmoſt endeavours to remedy theſe diſorders, by an extraordinary *vigilance* in our ſtations, and an exemplary *ſanctity* in our conduct." P. 19.

The ſecond diſcourſe, on Acts xvii, 22, 23, ſhows "the obvious diſtinction between true religion and ſuperſtition; and, ſuppoſing religion to be debaſed (as it too often has been by ignorance and error) yet, that ſuperſtition itſelf, ſo inimical to the happineſs of individuals, is leſs detrimental to ſociety than no religion at all, than atheiſm and infidelity." (P. 31.)

Sermon III, on Miracles, ſhows "the expediency, that Providence ſhould occaſionally interpoſe, in an extraordinary manner, in the government of mankind; and the probability that it has done ſo." (P. 54.)

Sermon IV, on Submiſſion to the exiſting Powers, ſtates what is the "duty of every Chriſtian, and the intereſt of every

ſubject

ſubject or citizen, generally ſpeaking, under every government, whether monarchical or republican. (P. 72.) In the Advertiſement prefixed to this diſcourſe, this lively ſketch is preſented to us: "the French theoriſts ſeem to have acted like thoſe reſtleſs ſpirits on board a ſhip, who excite the crew to mutiny, ſeize the veſſel, murder the commander, plunder the ſtore-room, and, intoxicated with liquor, quarrel among themſelves for ſuperiority, and by placing unſkilful pilots at the helm, run the ſhip aground, and periſh amongſt rocks and quickſands." (P. 72.) The concluſion of this Sermon is juſt and forcible.

Sermon V, on the temporal Diſadvantages of Vice, is a ſtriking practical diſcourſe, equally inſtructive to the higher, the middle, and the loweſt ranks of men in ſociety.

Sermon VI, on Temperance, firſt, explains the nature of this virtue, and enforces the practice of it; and, ſecondly, ſhows the peculiar obligation that Chriſtians are under, "to be temperate in all things."

From Sermon VII, on the Love of Pleaſure, we ſhall make two extracts, ſomewhat long, but not tedious (we think) to any conſiderate reader.

"The only pleaſures which dignify and are therefore worthy a rational creature, are either of the intellectual, of the ſocial, or of the moral kind; thoſe which ſpring from contemplating the works of creation and from the ſearch of truth, or from the exerciſe of our ſocial affections, from acts of benevolence, love, and charity; or from the conſciouſneſs of having diſcharged our duty to God, our neighbour, and ourſelves; theſe pleaſures, we may be certain, our religion could never intend to prohibit, or in general to reſtrain.

"And, as the mere animal part of our nature requires ſome attention, we may partake, in ſome degree, even of ſenſual pleaſures, which are indeed neceſſary to our ſubſiſtence; and the cares and fatigue of buſineſs demand alſo intervals of relaxation and repoſe.

"Here, then, we have need of our utmoſt caution and circumſpection, that we do not ſuffer what is only on ſome occaſions *lawful*, to become at all times *neceſſary*; nor make what was intended to recruit our ſpirits after the fatigue of buſineſs, more fatiguing than buſineſs itſelf; which, it is to be feared, is too frequently the caſe.

"Too eager a purſuit of pleaſure and amuſement ſeems indeed, amongſt every claſs of people, to be the prevailing propenſity of the age; and the conſequent neglect of religious duties is but too notorious. As the love of pleaſure has abounded, the love of God has in proportion waxed cold.

"Yet the conduct of perſons in higher life, one would charitably hope, has been either miſrepreſented, or at leaſt greatly aggravated by the partial views of moroſe obſervers, or by the licentious pens of ſatyrical writers; who, from the indiſcretion, or perhaps the real profligacy of too many, have repreſented the great world in general "as altogether become abominable," and entirely devoted to luxury and licen-

licentious pleaſures; as engaged at leaſt in perpetual ſcenes of riot and diſſipation, as ſacrificing their time and fortunes, waſting every hour of the day, and often of the night, in trifling if not guilty indulgencies.

" But though this repreſentation may, I fear, be too extenſively juſt, there are, I am perſuaded, numberleſs exceptions. And, probably, ſome of the moſt exalted characters are to be found amongſt thoſe in the higheſt ſtations; men who reſign the pleaſures, and even the comforts of life, in compliance with the duties which they owe to their country; attending early and late to the affairs of the publick, vigilant in counteracting the machinations of our foreign and our domeſtick enemies.

" I wiſh the like favourable ſuppoſition could juſtly be extended to every part of the community. But, alas! it is too notorious, that what is called the world, that is, the faſhionable (and even the buſy) world, are too generally infected, or rather intoxicated, with the love of pleaſure, and an habit of diſſipation. Notwithſtanding the diſtreſſes of the nation, and our accumulated taxes, every expenſive place of publick reſort is crowded beyond meaſure; the publick theatres, the publick concerts, the publick gardens, and every publick place, except the places of publick worſhip; ſo that they muſt hazard life and limb to gain admittance. People thus infatuated can find no more leiſure for their ſecular affairs than for their religious concerns, their rage for pleaſure renders them equally unfit for both.

" Cloyed with the plain, wholeſome food of domeſtick comfort, they flee from place to place, from the country to the metropolis, from the metropolis again to provincial ſcenes of frivolous amuſement, to the ſea-coaſt, to the continent, by ſea and by land, exhibiting themſelves every where, but where their duty and their true intereſt calls them; their country-ſeats, or their proper ſtations, among their friends, their neighbours, and dependents; exerciſing hoſpitality and charity, aſſiſting the diſtreſſed, relieving the poor, and encouraging the induſtrious; and in theſe employments, I make no doubt, they would find not only amuſement, but more real enjoyment than in the purſuit of a phantom of pleaſure, which perpetually eludes their graſp." P. 127.

" Whatever our fortune or ſituation in life may be, no man is ſent into the world " like the Leviathan, merely to take his paſtime," (as the Pſalmiſt expreſſes it) and to amuſe himſelf; but has ſome ſerious duties which demand his attention, and, whether he is loitering the whole morning in the ſtreets or in a coffee-room, or revelling at noon in the licentiouſneſs of a tavern, or at night in the pandæmonium of a gaming-houſe, the difference in this reſpect is not very conſiderable. If theſe *occupations*, for it is an abuſe of language to call them *pleaſures*, make him forget or neglect his duty to God, the ſlothful and the wicked ſervant will, it is to be feared, ſhare the ſame condemnation.

" As for thoſe " men of pleaſure," whom we frequently hear ſpoken of with a degree of approbation, as agreeable and ſprightly characters, let us not be impoſed upon by ſpecious names and plauſible appearances. A " man of pleaſure" is too often one who purſues his own pleaſure at the expence of his neighbour's domeſtick peace,

or

or ſeeks it in the ruin of innocence, or who indulges his ſenſual appetites in contempt of the laws of temperance and ſobriety.

"And as for parties of pleaſure, the moſt innocent parties diſtinguiſhed by that captivating appellation, ſeldom anſwer our expectations, and generally terminate in laſſitude and diſappointment.

"In ſhort, let us fix upon ſome uſeful plan of life, adhere to it with ſteadineſs and regularity, and be contented with thoſe intervals of relaxation and amuſement which nature requires and religion allows; nor ſacrifice our *real* happineſs both here and hereafter to fantaſtick or vicious pleaſures. An habit of trifling will lead us into ſerious evils, and a few tranſient gratifications, ſucceeded by ages of pain and remorſe, is a wretched purchaſe.

"Let us, then, cultivate a taſte for more rational amuſements, thoſe which are to be found in devotion and charity; thoſe heart-felt joys which ſpring from relieving the diſtreſſed and comforting the afflicted. Our time, I am convinced, would paſs much more to our ſatisfaction, if ſpent in the performance of ſuch acts of benevolence, and the duties which our ſtation in life requires, than in ſtrolling from one ſcene of diſſipation to another; which, if we think at all, the ſenſe of the impropriety of ſuch a conduct muſt contaminate and embitter our enjoyment." P. 132.

In Sermon VIII, on Happineſs, the preacher ſhows, "firſt, that notwithſtanding the many calamities and vexations incident to human life, yet there is a conſiderable degree of happineſs to be obtained even in this world; and, ſecondly, that the practice of religion and virtue, and the conſequent favour of God, are the only infallible means of obtaining happineſs." (P. 41.)

In Sermon IX, on evangelical Righteouſneſs, it is ſhown, firſt, "what the righteouſneſs of the Scribes and Phariſees was, which our Saviour here pronounces inſufficient to qualify them for the kingdom of heaven; and, ſecondly, what kind and degree of righteouſneſs, is required of *us* for that purpoſe." (P. 160.)

The Letter from a Father to his Son at the Univerſity, was "written with a view to prevent a ſerious youth from being made uneaſy by Dr. ——y's "Addreſs to Young Students," (p. 199) which purpoſe it is well calculated to anſwer.

Having produced ſufficient ſpecimens of this writer's ſentiments and ſtyle, we need not be elaborate in characterizing his work; but may ſay, with a meaning very different from that of the original words, "Jam ſatis eſt:" there is enough to convince the friends of ſound religion and virtue, that they will be very far from miſpending a few hours in the peruſal of theſe inſtructive and well-timed diſcourſes.

BRITISH

BRITISH CATALOGUE.

POETRY.

ART. 17. *Beaumaris Bay. A Poem, with Notes, deſcriptive and explanatory, particularly of the Druids, Founders of ſome of the Fifteen Tribes of North Wales, the Families deſcended from them, and Quotations from the Bards; with an Appendix, containing an Account of the Battle of Beaumaris, in* 1648, *and the taking of the Caſtle.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sael. 1800.

What there is in this Poem, is certainly very ſpirited and good; but the entire accompliſhment of the great promiſe of the title-page, can hardly be expected in a pamphlet of fifty-ſix pages. The verſification is however exceedingly pleaſing, as will appear from the following ſpecimen.

" The green's attractive charms the Muſe ſhall tell,
That all inviting—ever varying mall,
That checks with pebbly beach the preſſing tides;
Where Commerce in her ſwelling canvaſs prides,
Where Mona's offspring ſeek teſtaceous wealth,
And every zephyr brings the bloom of health.
Here Britain's ſafety, glory's tempting car,
Inſpire the martial mind to dare the war.
The tactic page with prying eyes explore,
To ſcare the raſh invader from the ſhore.
Here ſchool-boys crowd to face the fancied foe,
And little breaſts with hoſtile ardour glow.
The war in miniature—the mimic boy,
The bloodleſs battle, and the hour of joy,
The Muſe beholds, and in the bright preſage,
The Marlboroughs, Nelſons of the riſing age;
And tho' no phalanx fall, no heroes die,
Yet beauty darts around the conqu'ring eye;
Thro' pleas'd platoons the graceful footſteps bend,
And ev'ning ſuns on tales of love deſcend."

There are perhaps yet happier examples to be found in the Poem, which we have peruſed with pleaſure. The Notes alſo are very entertaining, and indicate an intimate acquaintance with local hiſtory. By the term " teſtaceous wealth," in the above extract, the author means to allude to the large oyſters, called the " Penmore," which are pickled in large quantities, and ſent to various parts of the kingdom. We would rather have ſeen this Poem in a quarto form, with a ſketch of Beaumaris Bay annexed, which we think would have enſured its durability.

ART.

ART. 18. *Cecco's Complaint, tranſlated from Il Lamento Di Cecco Da Varlungo, of Franceſco Baldovini. By John Hunter, Eſq.* 8vo. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

Baldovini was a poet of Florence, and wrote in that ſtyle of poetry, which they termed Ruſticale or Contadineſca. This production is the amorous lamentation of a ſwain, on the inſenſibility of his miſtreſs, and will probably be peruſed with much greater effect in the original than in the tranſlation. The Poem ſeems formed exactly on the model of the ſecond Eclogue of Virgil, which the annotator, who undertakes to point out the parallel paſſages, has omitted to mention. The following is as good a ſpecimen as can be given.

" I have a Starling that's ſo very tame,
Familiarly he'll hop from hand to hand;
With tongue ſo glib a thouſand things he'll name,
And ſay and do whate'er thou ſhalt command.
And lately to my gin a Leveret came,
Down in the moor that by my orchard ſtand;
And I've ſo tam'd him, that he's daily fed
From Rover's PLATE, and ſhares his ſtrawy bed.
My lovely maid, to prove how dear thou art,
Theſe fav'rite pets to-morrow ſhall be thine;
And with theſe preſents I would ſend my heart,
But well thou know'ſt it is no longer mine." &c. &c.

After recapitulating all his calamities, the lover determines to die, and the Poem thus facetiouſly concludes.

" Thus Cecco griev'd, and from his miſtreſs hied,
By ſome heroic death to end his woe;
But as the ſun he in the weſt eſpied,
Laid down to ſleep before he gave the blow:
And when he woke, reflecting if he died,
His little farm would all to ruin go;
He hence conſenting milder thoughts to nouriſh,
Reſolv'd to live, that his affairs might flouriſh."

The Poem is elegantly printed; the original is printed by the ſide of the tranſlation, the underſtanding of which is facilitated by a gloſſary, or explanation of difficult and mutilated expreſſions.

ART. 19. *Aphono and Ethina, including the Science of Ethics, founded on the Principles of univerſal Science. A Poem, in Three Cantos. By George Naſon.* 8vo. 118 pp. 2s. Hill, Edinburgh. 1799.

This Poem (as the writer calls it) is of ſuch a nature, as renders it impoſſible for us to give any clear account of it; except, that the author's intention ſeems to be, to give ſome leſſons of morality, and at the ſame time to exhibit, in the ſtory of Aphono and Ethina, a warning to youthful lovers not to indulge their mutual deſires previous to marriage. The above objects are certainly commendable. " Further theſe deponents ſay not"; as it is not in our power to give any extract from

from the work, which would be likely to produce in our readers an inclination to peruſe it.

ART. 20. *An Ode. The Glorious Defeat of the French Fleet, near the Nile, by Admiral Sir Horatio Nelſon, Auguſt, 1798. By Edward Muſſenden, Eſq.* Folio, 8 pp. 1s. Norwich printed, for the Author.

The date of this publication does not appear. Probably it ſhould be 1798, or the beginning of 1799. It would, however, have been no injury to the author had this Ode intirely eſcaped our notice, ſince, whatever praiſe may be due to his patriotiſm, we cannot give a favourable account of his poetry.

ART. 21. *The Fourth of June. England's Liberty's and Monarchy's truly Triumphant Pageant, and Royal Birth Day's beſt Grace, the Independent Britiſh Phalanx on its Champ de Mars. A Poem. By W. Whitmore.* Folio. 15 pp. Heptinſtall. 1799.

The day, and the mode of its celebration, which this writer commemorates, may well inſpire the moſt fervent loyalty; but that loyalty does not always produce poetry, his ſtrains too well evince. We ſhould be glad if it was in our power to cite any paſſage that could afford a favourable ſpecimen of the work. Not feeling this to be practicable, we can only commend the author's intention, and recommend him not to waſte his time in courting the Muſe, ſince that lady is not likely to make her "**ſojourn bland*" with him.

The mode adopted in this, and ſeveral other poems, of printing ſome words in almoſt every line in Italics, is to us ſo diſguſting, that it would, in ſome degree, diminiſh our pleaſure in peruſing even a good poem.

DRAMATIC.

ART. 22. *Joanna of Montfaucon, a Dramatic Romance of the Fourteenth Century, as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden; formed upon the Plan of the German Drama of Kotzebue, and adapted to the Engliſh Theatre by Richard Cumberland.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lackington. 1800.

Mr. Cumberland has written ſo many things which both delight and inſtruct the public, that when we ſaw his name prefixed to a tranſlation from the German, or if not actually a tranſlation, profeſſedly founded upon a German work, we hoped that ſomething would at length be preſented to us, which might tend to give us a more favourable opinion of the dramatic productions of the German preſs. What effect the repreſentation on the theatre might have, not being preſent, we cannot preſume to deſcribe. It certainly has no charms for the cloſet, and does no manner of credit to thoſe who prevailed on Mr.

* An expreſſion at the beginning of the Poem.

Cum-

Cumberland to undertake the task of preparing it for the English stage. Mr. Cumberland, however, wanted not its aid. His Observer, and excellent Poem, "Calvary," will perpetuate his name.

NOVELS.

ART. 23. *Edmund Oliver. By Charles Lloyd. In Two Volumes.* 8vo. 8s. Lee and Hurst. 1798.

Formerly it was considered as an excellence in novel-writing, if characters were delineated, and sentiments expressed, with a strict adherence to nature; and even a great degree of simplicity was thought necessary to perfection. But now matters are reversed; and it seems to be the ambition of many novel-writers, to present to their readers whatever can be conceived that is unnatural, exaggerated, and extravagant. Such are, in a high degree, the characters and sentiments exhibited in these volumes. The hero and the heroine are people, the like to whom never existed, nor indeed could be tolerated in any civilized society. They neither think, nor speak, nor act, like any men or women that were ever seen, even in these days of affected singularity and senseless innovation. Benevolence, rectitude, honour, truth, and all that one would wish to see in human beings, are supposed to be rooted in the hearts of these persons; while their thoughts are, not accidentally, but habitually sensual, yielding always to "the omnipotence of the present impulse;" and their conduct vicious, profligate, injurious to all around them, and ruinous to themselves. The heroine (whose character was, to be "enthusiastic in her desires to diffuse happiness") dies by her own hand, a victim to her uncontrolled passions; the hero, having "received strong and *delicate* sensibilities from nature," is immersed for years together in the vilest debauchery; and is converted to reason and good conduct by a preceptor, whom no sane man would choose for himself or his son. Of his wholesome principles, and his profound wisdom, these are samples: "Human wants are few, and I deem it criminal, indeed an actual robbery, to devote more to myself or family, than would fall to our share, were property equalized." P. 52. "Had I the wealth of worlds, I should not wish them to possess more than I deem would fall to their share as single individuals of a brother race." Ib. Our hero, disciplined and reformed by such a tutor, thus exhorts his sister to marry a widower with three children: "If you judge rightly, and are anxious for the happiness of your *species*, this circumstance ought to give *additional* weight and interest to the claims of Mr. Basil;—it affords you an opportunity of more extensive and immediate use than you otherwise could be of." P. 272. And he proceeds to instruct her how they should be brought up: "Education is rather a negative than a positive process; and the parent, who at the age of twenty can present children with robust constitutions, sound judgments, and simple untainted hearts, though of unformed tastes, inelegant manners, and with minds

little ſtored with the foppery of literature, may congratulate himſelf in the expectation of giving exiſtence to uſeful citizens and upright men." P. 274. The ſame contemptible affectation frequently appears in the ſtyle, as in the ſentiments of theſe volumes.

ART. 24. *Letters written from Lauſanne. Tranſlated from the French. Two Volumes.* 8vo. 5s. Dilly. 1799.

Theſe Letters are of a character very different from the preceding article. The tranſlator offers them to the public, "induced by a conviction that they will afford innocent amuſement to the admirers of ſimplicity and nature." This, we think, they will effect; as far as the ſtory of Cecilia and her mother extends; which is interrupted, however, and at laſt broken off, in a manner very unſatisfactory. The ſtory of Caliſta is intereſting, and in its concluſion highly affecting; but its general tendency to improve the morals of any reader, is very queſtionable. The ſtyle of the tranſlation is ſo ſimple, pure, and unmixed with Galliciſms, that we can hardly perſuade ourſelves the work is not original. Two ſhort extracts will convey ſome idea both of the author's ſentiments, and of the tranſlator's ſtyle. "I figure them (nobility) to myſelf, as a people who feel themſelves more obliged than other men to be brave, diſintereſted, and faithful to their word; who conceive it impoſſible that they ſhould ever commit any mean action; and who think that they have received from their anceſtors, and are bound to hand down to their children, a certain flower of honour, which is to virtue what elegance is to motion, what grace is to ſtrength and beauty; and which they preſerve with ſo much the more care, becauſe it cannot be defined, and becauſe they themſelves know not what it will bear without being blighted and deſtroyed." Vol, i, p. 20. "This principle of nobility, which conſiſts merely in an obligation more ſtrict and more deeply impreſſed upon the mind, but which has a ſtronger effect upon a young man than conſcience itſelf, making him cautious in ſpite of his paſſions; and making even old men brave in ſpite of their infirmities;—this principle, I ſay, enchants, attaches, and ſeduces me."—"When this claſs of ſociety enriches itſelf by a marriage for money, by commerce, or by ſpeculations in finance, it ceaſes to exiſt; nobility becomes plebeian, or to ſpeak more accurately, my chimera vaniſhes." P. 22.—"As to the preſident, he is ſtill more abſurd, or ſtill more to be pitied. He attempts to argue like many others, that our morals would be juſt as good without the aid of religion, and inſtances many atheiſts of reſpectable characters. Tell him, in anſwer, that to judge of this matter, it would require *a whole people* of atheiſts, and the experience of *three* or *four generations*." P. 123.

ART. 25. *Conſtantia Neville; or, the Weſt-Indian. A Novel. In Three Volumes. By Helena Wells, Author of the Step-Mother, &c.* 8vo. 15s. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

We can readily allow to this performance the praiſe of good principles and an unexceptionable moral, and this perhaps is all that can be reaſonably expected, where there is no extraordinary ingenuity of contri-

contrivance, or ſuperior powers of imagination. The numerous and reſpectable liſt of ſubſcribers prefixed, makes it probable that the author is a meritorious object of benevolence. The imputation againſt the Queen of France is perhaps ſomewhat precipitate; and the work ſeems ſpun out to three volumes, to juſtify the better the large ſum of fifteen ſhillings, which is the price of the publication.

ART. 26. *Original Letters of J. J. Rouſſeau to M. de Maleſherbes, M. d'Alembert, Madame la M. de Luxembourg, &c. &c. with a Fac-ſimile of Rouſſeau's Hand-writing, and an original Military Air of his Compoſition; alſo Original Letters of Butta Fuoco and David Hume. Tranſlated from the French.* 12mo. 4s. 6d. Symonds. 1799.

We profeſs to be among thoſe who have never greatly admired any of the performances of this celebrated writer, many of which have had ſo pernicious an operation as may perhaps never be counteracted. Theſe Letters are of a ſimilar character with the innumerable others which have been publiſhed ſince Rouſſeau's death, and the ſame waywardneſs of character is impreſſed upon them all. Many are very trifling and unimportant. The Letters which illuſtrate his behaviour during his reſidence in England have, we think, been publiſhed before; they evidently prove the capriciouſneſs and abſurdity of his conduct to be very little removed from inſanity. A head of the author is prefixed, by no means ill-executed; and, by the fac-ſimile, it appears that he wrote a remarkably neat hand, which is not often the diſtinction of thoſe who write much for the public.

ART. 27. *The Picture of the Age. A Novel; in Two Volumes.* 12mo. 7s. Symonds. 1800.

This is certainly a well-written Novel; but the firſt volume in particular bears ſo ſtrong a reſemblance to the Eloiſa of Rouſſeau, as to take from it any claim to originality. The author ſeems conſcious of this reſemblance; for, in a ſhort Advertiſement, he declares that if the reader ſhall ſuppoſe any thing in this performance to be the property of Rouſſeau, it is no voluntary robbery. We fear that it does exhibit too faithful a Picture of the Age; but we truſt that the Legiſlature will, ere long, check the progreſs of vice, by introducing ſome law on the ſubject of divorces and adultery, which may prevent the repetition of ſuch ſcenes as are here delineated.

DIVINITY.

ART. 28. *Two Sermons, preached before his Majeſty at the Chapel-Royal, at St. James's, during Lent. By Brownlow, Biſhop of Wincheſter.* 4to. 33 pp. 1s. 6d. Wright, and Rivingtons. 1799.

The Dedication of theſe Sermons to the King, is as juſt and true, as it is elegant and courtly. The firſt Sermon, on Pſalm liii, 1, ſtates, that the errors and miſtakes of men, in reſpect to the Deity, may be

traced to theſe general ſources, ignorance, ſuperſtition, and hardened unbelief, and ſhows, that "unbelief is more fruitful in miſchief than any other error of the human mind." P. 5. The text is there illuſtrated, "by making the character of the ſcriptural fool in the abſurd conſequences which follow from his opinion." P. 5. Theſe conſequences relate to civil government, religious eſtabliſhments, and the ſocial compact amongſt men, or "the obligation by which they ſtand bound to each other in all the relative duties of life." P. 11. In a ſhort application, the Biſhop contraſts the ſtate of a nation which has renounced its faith in God, with that of a nation which preſerves it in purity.

"The text of the ſecond Sermon is Pſalm lviii, 11. Under the firſt head, it is ſhown that there is a *God;* and that "enormous abuſe of man's reaſon" is noticed, which hath actually taken place in a neighbouring country, "the ſetting up, not an idol, the known folly of paſt times, but an idea of the abſtract, an empty principle, if it can be called a principle, in the place of the true God." P. 17. "The imaginary ſubſtitute which takes the place of God hath been called Virtue; hath been called Reaſon; but whatever be the name, the idea is ſubſtituted as the true object of worſhip." P. 19. This is juſtly denominated groſs atheiſm. Chriſtianity is vindicated from the objection, that "great troubles and ſanguinary wars have diſtracted the Chriſtian world." P. 23.

The ſecond head ſhows, that not virtue, nor any ſtern and inflexible idea, but God judgeth the earth, and judgeth it in mercy, revealed by the Goſpel, and aſſured to us by the merits of our Redeemer Chriſt.

Having ſtated thoſe reflections which the government of God ſuggeſts, on applying the text to the actual dealings of men (p. 30), the preacher declines to "judge farther the paſt conduct of ſuffering nations, than as they ſerve to our improvement and inſtruction." P. 30. And he concludes his ſeaſonable and uſeful diſcourſe, by an exhortation to amend much amongſt us, both in private manners, and in public decorum, and by ſetting forth our abundant obligations to ſuch an amendment.

ART. 29. *A Sermon, preached at St. Mary's Church, Stafford, July 25, 1799, at the Aſſizes, held before the Hon. Mr. Baron Thompſon, and the Hon. Mr. Juſtice Rooke. By the Rev. E. P. Waters, A. B. Curate of Great Barr. Publiſhed at the Requeſt of the High Sheriff, and the Gentlemen of the Grand Jury.* 25 pp. 1s. 6d. Pearſon, Birmingham. 1799.

At the beginning of this diſcourſe, Mr. Waters declares it to be his intention, "firſt, to collect into one point of view the principal arguments, by which human reaſon is enabled (under the divine aſſiſtance) to deduce the neceſſity of ſocial reſtraints, of government and law; afterwards to enumerate the natural duties of man, as flowing from the eternal principles of juſtice and mercy, and affecting him as a rational creature, and a member of ſociety; and, in the concluſion, to prove, by reference to indubitable facts and recent example, that the greateſt good iſſues from the practice of theſe virtues, juſtice and mercy, when

when exerciſed under the influence of religious fear and humility before God; and that dreadful evils are accumulated on that people who attempt to break through theſe ſalutary reſtraints of human conduct." P. 6. Theſe ſeveral topics are diſcuſſed in a plain and manly ſtyle, and with ſo much energy, as to prove that the mind of the writer is deeply impreſſed with thoſe right principles of religion, morality, and government, which he ſo ſeaſonably inculcates. In treating of the ſecond head, into which he divides his ſubject, after having enumerated the natural duties of man in a ſtate of ſociety, he adds the following juſt obſervations: "This is that comprehenſive ſyſtem of rights, in ſupporting, and ſecuring, and perpetuating which, the powers of government are combined; and around which the ſanctions and the terrors of the law have been thrown up as a rampart and defence. And every government claims our admiration, as it preſerves theſe rights inviolable and ſecure, amidſt the claſhing intereſts and adverſe accidents of life. But it muſt however be obſerved, that for this purpoſe, the mere abſtract conſideration of our natural rights will not be ſufficient. For though theſe are the principles of action, yet in their application to the affairs of the world, they are ſo variouſly combined and oppoſed, ſo mixed, and ſometimes ſo overpowered with evil, that neither pure good can be obtained, nor evil ſeparated from its co-exiſtent good. The inſufficiency of the human judgment impedes our progreſs in the diſcernment of right and wrong, and in many inſtances we find good and evil, to all appearance, ſo equally divided on both ſides, that, to decide the queſtion, we can only have recourſe to experience. Hence experience may be accounted our ſureſt guide; and thoſe who vainly think that they can invent legiſlatures, and govern empires without its aid, will find themſelves baffled in every point, by trifling paſſions and events, often ſmall and unnoticed in their beginnings, but wide, uncontrolable, and deſtructive in their conſequences." P. 18. The concluſion appears rather abrupt. The author advertizes a volume of ſermons, which are ſpeedily to be publiſhed.

ART. 30. *The Neceſſity of religious Education, proved by Arguments deduced from the ſcriptural Doctrine of the Corruption of Human Nature; with an Inquiry into the true Meaning of St. Peter's Poſition, that "Charity ſhall cover the Multitude of Sins." A Sermon, preached on Sunday, December 22, 1799, at the Pariſh Church of St. Paul, for the Benefit of the Charity-Schools eſtabliſhed in the City of Exeter. With a Variety of Notes and Illuſtrations. By Jonas Dennis, S. C. L. of Exeter College, Oxford; Prebendary of Carſwell, and Chaplain to the Right Worſhipful the Mayor of Exeter.* 4to. 76 pp. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons, &c. 1800.

From the corruption of human nature, the neceſſity of religious education may doubtleſs be *inferred;* but the point here chiefly *proved* is, the neceſſity of divine grace; a very important topic, and deſerving to be inculcated moſt ſtrongly on the minds of Chriſtians. We believe it is now generally agreed, that when St. Peter ſays, "charity covereth the multitude of ſins," he means the ſins of others, and not of the charitable perſon; this interpretation being confirmed by a ſimilar paſſage

paſſage in Proverbs x, 12, of which that in St. Peter ſeems to be merely a citation. In point of compoſition, this Sermon is very unequal; being, in ſome parts of it, ſound and vigorous, in others of a very looſe texture, and merely declamatory. One of the beſt ſpecimens we can produce is this: "Let me not, however, from theſe obſervations, be thought deſirous of depreciating human benevolence:—My object is to cleanſe and purify its ſource—to exalt and ennoble its nature—and thus to enhance its intrinſic value.—My object is, from a principle of pagan ethics to change it into a principle of religious duty.—My object is, to advance it from the ſervice of the heathen moraliſts—of Seneca—of Epictetus—of Antoninus—and to enliſt it under the banners of Chriſt, "the captain of our ſalvation," "the author and finiſher of our faith." By this means alone can I hope to obtain ſucceſs in the cauſe I now plead; for moraliſts are *occaſionally humane*,—Chriſtians are *habitually tender-hearted*." P. 36. The "notes and illuſtrations" are unconſcionably long; and, like the Sermon, ſomewhat tedious. We very much diſapprove of ſuch unſupported, and we believe groundleſs reflections, as the following: "To every ſincere Chriſtian it is deeply diſtreſſing to obſerve, by what trivial cauſes *the majority* of the clergy are induced to adapt their diſcourſes to the vitiated taſte of the preſent times." This is very different from the wholeſome admonitions, which have lately been inculcated by ſome dioceſans on the clergy, to inſiſt more largely than uſual in their diſcourſes upon the peculiar doctrines of Chriſtianity. If biſhops give this advice in a reſpectful manner, ſurely it would be decorous in a private clergyman, to abſtain from all appearance of arrogant cenſure of his equals. The note at p. 66, appears to us, in ſome parts of it, to ſavour of puritanical ranting: "By *fine ladies*, I do not mean ſuch as flutter about the precincts of Court, but ſuch as ſwarm in every trading city, and in every market town;—ſuch, in ſhort, as pride themſelves with the notion of being genteel; becauſe forſooth, like Jezebel, they paint their face—wear curled wigs—bedizen themſelves—bedeck themſelves with waving feathers—with Frenchified red bonnets—flaming ſcarlet neckerchiefs—black veils—long muſlin trains—ſhort waiſts—variegated ſandals—dangling ear-rings—pearl necklaces—velvet bracelets, and all the other indelicate ornaments and meretricious furbelows of faſhionable female attire."

ART. 31. *A Prayer and Sermon, delivered at Charleſtown, December 31, 1799, on the Death of George Waſhington, late Preſident, and Commander in Chief of the Armies of the United States of America; who departed this Life, at Mount Vernon in Virginia, on the 14th of the ſame Month, in the 69th Year of his Age. With an additional Sketch of his Life. By Jedidiah Morſe, D.D. Paſtor of the Church in Charleſtown. To which is prefixed, an Account of the Proceedings of the Town on the Melancholy Occaſion. Written by Joſiah Bartlett, Eſq.* 8vo. 82 pp. 2s. Stockdale. 1800.

The proceedings of the inhabitants of Charleſtown, on this occaſion, appear to have been arranged with great propriety, and conducted with all ſuitable ſolemnity.

About

About half of the Prayer conſiſts of ſentences taken from Scripture, tending to impreſs on the mind very devout reflections. The remainder of the Prayer adores the diſpenſations of Providence however afflicting; laments the loſs of a moſt uſeful and beloved man; implores conſolation for the widow, her family, and the United States; gives thanks for the many and great ſervices done, and the bright example left to Columbia, by the deceaſed; and ſupplicates that wars may ceaſe, and good government be eſtabliſhed in every nation. The whole Prayer is animated and fervent.

The Preface to the Sermon is not a happy effuſion of eloquence. The text is Deut. xxxiv, 5, 7, 8.

The life and character of *Moſes*, as a general, a law-giver, and a private man, are ſet forth at length; and his counterpart, *in all points*, is of courſe found in Waſhington: "*Like as* was Moſes, ſo was Waſhington," &c. The parallel, however, is not drawn with much felicity, either of ſentiment or ſtyle. It is a feeble and mean panegyric, to ſay, "if Moſes was a pattern, *he* was an admirable *copyiſt*." P. 35. And it is extravagant to aſſert, "never was there a greater captain, nor a ſtateſman ſuperior "to him." P. 35. The following teſtimony does real honour to the ſubject of it: "Of his exemplary piety and reſpect for the Chriſtian religion, he has given us ample proofs, by his numerous declarations in his public ſpeeches and addreſſes; by his reverence of the Sabbath, and his devout and conſtant attendance on public worſhip; by his pious and humble acknowledgments of his dependence on God, for every gift and favour; but more eſpecially by his ſtrict and uniform adherence to the principles, and his obſervance of the duties of Chriſtianity through his whole life, and the devout reſignation and calmneſs which he manifeſted at his death." P. 36.

The "Sketch of General Waſhington's Life," is reviſed and enlarged from the "new edition of the American Geography, 1799."

ART. 32. *A Sermon, preached by particular Deſire, in the Pariſh Church of Willand, Devon, on Thurſday, the 7th Day of February, 1799, at the Interment of John Weſtcott, Yeoman, who died of a melancholy Accident, in the Prime of Life. By the Rev. Jonas Dennis, S. C. L. of Exeter College, Oxford, and a Deacon of the Church of England.* 4to. 23 pp. 1s. Rivingtons, &c.

A text more ſuitable to ſuch an occaſion cannot be found, than 1 Sam. xx, 3, "There is but a ſtep between me and death." P. 3. The preacher diſcourſes on theſe words in a very edifying, but not in a remarkably appropriate manner. Till we came to p. 16, nothing occurred to us, which might not as properly be ſaid upon any other occaſion. The remaining pages contain ſome earneſt exhortations to repentance, and amendment of life. We doubt, however, whether the following climax (if ſuch it is) be truly pathetic: "I ſolemnly call upon you—I exhort—I intreat—I pray—I beſeech—I conjure you." P. 22.

ART.

ART. 33. *A conciſe Directory for the profitable Employment of the Chriſtian Sabbath. By Samuel Burder.* 8vo. 28 pp. 3d. or 2s. 9d. per Dozen. Williams, &c. 1800.

Wholeſome advice, delivered with much plainneſs, in ſentences abrupt, and ſomewhat unconnected, "to the church of Chriſt and the congregation at large, in Butt-Lane, Saint Albans."

MEDICINE.

ART. 34. *The Clinical Guide. Part the Third. In which an Account is given of the Diſeaſes incident to Pregnancy and Parturition, the Method of conducting Labour, &c. By R. Niſbet, M. D.* 12mo. 348 pp. 5s. Johnſon.

This contains, the author ſays, the ſubſtance of a courſe of lectures on midwifery, as they were delivered by him ſome years ago at Edinburgh, and apparently but little altered from their original form. He begins with giving a theory of conception, which he explains in the manner now uſually received, and then treats of the diſeaſes conſequent on that ſtate, as nauſea, heart-burn, ſickneſs, coſtiveneſs, headach, &c. and directs medicines appropriate to each of thoſe affections. Having carried the woman to her full term, he gives the neceſſary directions for conducting the labour. In laborious births, he ſeems to prefer the forceps to the lever; but admits the latter inſtrument may be uſed in ſome caſes where the forceps would not be applicable. In caſes of extreme diſtortion of the pelvis, and where it is abſolutely impracticable to bring a full-grown fœtus, without mutilating it, it has been propoſed, he ſays, to bring on labour prematurely, as in the ſixth or ſeventh month; but conſiders the practice as too hazardous and uncertain to be adopted. We know, however, ſome gentlemen in London have practiſed this method with complete ſucceſs. That is, healthy living children have been brought without the leaſt injury to the conſtitution of the parents; and we ſee with pleaſure, from a communication publiſhed in the eighth and laſt volume of Medical Facts, that Mr. Barlow, of Bolton in Lancaſhire, has practiſed the method ſucceſsfully for ſome years paſt, on a variety of patients. The author then gives directions for managing women in child-bed; on this head he is brief, but his rules are, in general, judicious and proper. A catalogue of medicines, adapted to the complaints incident to the ſeveral ſtates treated of, concludes the volume. The author means ſhortly to publiſh a Fourth Part of the Guide, which is to compriſe accounts of the diſeaſes of children.

PHILO-

PHILOSOPHY.

ART. 35. *Inquiries in Natural and Experimental Philoſophy (to be continued occaſionally). By D. Brehm, Eſq. No. I. An Anſwer to a Queſtion propoſed by the National Inſtitute at Paris.* 8vo. 22 pp. 1s. Longman and Rees, London; Hough and Washbourn, Gloceſter. 1799.

The ſubject of this pamphlet is an anſwer to the following queſtion, which was propoſed by the French National Inſtitute, and for the beſt anſwer to which a prize has been offered.

"To determine what are the grand revolutions, which have taken place on our globe, and which are either indicated or proved by hiſtory?"

Mr. Brehm addreſſes himſelf to the Secretary of the Mathematical and Geographical Department of the French National Inſtitute at Paris; and in anſwer to the queſtion, he ſays, "The following evidences are intended to prove—that the moon has been ſtruck off from our earth by a comet, which has cauſed our globe to undergo three grand revolutions.

"1ſt. From the moon's vicinity to our earth, and revolving round it.

"2dly. From the circular mountains and cavities viſible on the moon's ſurface.

"3dly. From the evident confuſion the matter lies in of which our globe is compoſed."

In ſhort this author's opinion is, that a comet happening to come very near the earth, ſtruck off from it many millions of pieces, which flew in a certain direction, whilſt the earth formed itſelf into a globe of a leſs ſize, by the power of gravitation. That the earth in its way received many of the ſcattered pieces; but that the largeſt and moſt diſtant of the pieces formed the nucleus of the moon, which from a combination of two forces (namely, the impulſe received from the comet, and the attraction of the earth) was compelled to move in a curve round the earth. Alſo that many of the ſcattered pieces fell on the moon, and formed its mountains, &c.

Mr. B. illuſtrates his hypotheſis by means of a plate, which is prefixed to the title-page, and wherein the deſtructive comet, the wounded earth, and the new-born moon with the ſcattered pieces, are repreſented. The evidences which he adduces in confirmation of the hypotheſis, are the irregularities of the moon's ſurface, and the confuſed ſtate of the materials which form the globe of the earth. Speaking of the moon, he ſays, "the circular mountains and cavities ſhew to a demonſtration, that the moon is compoſed of different pieces or fragments fallen into it."

The obvious objection which may be made to thoſe proofs is, that thoſe irregularities may have been produced by other cauſes, as from volcanos and earthquakes; eſpecially as we ſee the operations of thoſe cauſes, almoſt daily produced under our own obſervation.

The

The principal circumſtance, which Mr. B. thinks to have demonſtratively proved, is, that the moon could not come from any other part of our ſyſtem, and of courſe that it was neceſſarily ſtruck off from the earth. "If the moon," ſays he, "had not been ſtruck off from our earth, it muſt have had a great velocity to come from any part of our ſyſtem; then to loſe that velocity ſuddenly, on its near approach to our earth, and acquire a circular motion round it, is contrary to all known laws, and therefore cannot be admitted."

In the above paragraph, Mr. B. has laid down as an axiom, or as a baſis for his hypotheſis, a propoſition, which has not the leaſt foundation in truth or neceſſity. Why ſhould the moon come with ſuch wonderful velocity, if it came from any diſtant part of our ſyſtem? Why could not the moon be ſuppoſed to have been projected by the power of ſome exploſion from the ſun or from a comet, or from any other celeſtial body, and with ſuch velocity as barely to reach our earth; or rather in ſuch direction, and with ſuch velocity, as when compounded with the attraction of the earth, it will juſt enable it to revolve round the latter in its preſent orbit? Or, to ſpeak more reaſonably, becauſe more like Chriſtians, why ſhould not the moon be created purpoſely to be juſt as it is, and do exactly what it does?

We are of opinion, that if Mr. B. will examine thoſe particulars, and the laws of motion in general, with that degree of patient attention which the ſubject demands, he will be induced to abandon his hypotheſis.

POLITICS.

ART. 36. *Speech of the Right Hon. Barry, Lord Yelverton, Chief Baron of his Majeſty's Court of Exchequer, in the Houſe of Lords of Ireland, on Saturday, March 22, 1800, in the Debate on the Fourth Article of a Legiſlative Union between Great-Britain and Ireland.* 8vo. 36 pp. Wright. 1800.

In diſcuſſing that article of the propoſed Union which relates to the number of Peers and Commoners by which Ireland is to be repreſented, the learned Lord takes a view of the origin and conſtitution of Parliament, in order to prove, that "it is not the people, merely as ſuch, that are repreſented, but only the property of the country." Taking property, therefore, as the baſis of repreſentation, the noble ſpeaker refers to four ſeveral criterions, to determine the proportion of members to which each kingdom is entitled; namely, 1, their reſpective peace-eſtabliſhments before the Union was in contemplation; 2, the expences reſpectively incurred in the preſent war; 3, the annual charge brought upon each country by thoſe expences; 4, the probable peace-eſtabliſhments of both countries at the cloſe of the war. He afterwards adds another teſt of the relative ability of the two countries; namely, the comparative amount of their commerce. From theſe criterions he infers, that the number of repreſentatives for Ireland ought to be to the number of thoſe for Great-Britain as two to fifteen; which would give to Ireland about ſeventy-four only, whereas the number propoſed

is

is one hundred. On a compariſon of the population of the reſpective countries, he concludes the number of repreſentatives allotted to each to be in a proportion ſtill more exact.

The proportion of Iriſh Peers who are to ſit in the Imperial Legiſlature is next examined, and ſhown, by a compariſon with the number allotted to Scotland, to be fair and adequate.

Towards the concluſion, the learned lord adverts to the general queſtion of an Union, and anſwers ſome of the popular objections urged againſt that meaſure. Theſe anſwers are, of neceſſity, ſimilar to thoſe which we have found in other publications; but one of them appears to us ſo plainly and yet ſo irreſiſtibly ſtated, that we will give it in the words of the noble ſpeaker.

"But it is ſaid that the arrangement of 1782 was final and concluſive. And ſo I admit it to be as to the only ſubject to which it applied; which was the legiſlative independence of Ireland. The independence of our legiſlature was then finally eſtabliſhed, and has never ſince been violated.

"But where is the article in that arrangement, which forbids an Union between the two countries? It decides the only queſtion then in controverſy between them, and thereby impedes not, but rather facilitates an Union; juſt as the accommodation of a private difference between two individuals often lays the foundation for a laſting friendſhip in future.

"It muſt be admitted that the independence of Ireland was not placed on a firmer baſis in 1782, than that on which the independence of Scotland ſtood in 1707. The only difference between the two caſes is, that Ireland *newly* recovered in 1782, what Scotland had enjoyed for ages before 1707. And therefore the independence of Scotland might with more reaſon have been objected as a bar to her Union with England. And accordingly the objection was made by the patriots of thoſe times; but the Scotch were too wiſe to give way to it." P. 22.

We hardly need to add, that this Speech (ſo far as it enters into the ſubject) anſwers to the expectations which the known abilities of the learned Lord would excite, and well illuſtrates that branch of the important meaſure in queſtion which it profeſſes to diſcuſs.

ART. 37. *Speech of the Right Hon. John Beresford, on his moving the Sixth Article of the Union in the Houſe of Commons of Ireland, March* 27, 1800. 8vo. 39 pp. 1s. Wright. 1800.

The ſixth Article contains (the Right Hon. ſpeaker obſerves) "thoſe reſolutions that relate to the future commercial arrangement between Great Britain and Ireland." The object of this Speech is to ſhow, "that the preſent ſyſtem has been formed on the principles of the Commercial Treaty in 1785, but that it goes further, and gives greater benefits to Ireland than the former." This is proved by a detail of particulars which it is not poſſible to abridge, and to which an extract would not do juſtice. This publication will be found uſeful to thoſe who deſire to view the great meaſure of an Union in all its commercial bearings and conſequences.

ART.

ART. 38. *The Speech (at Length) of the Hon. Henry Grattan in the Iriſh Houſe of Commons, againſt the Union with Great Britain.* 8vo. 36 pp. 1s. Jordan. 1800.

We know not whether this Speech is publiſhed under the direction of the gentleman whoſe name it bears; but if it contains a fair and genuine ſpecimen of his eloquence, we cannot help thinking that eloquence has been greatly over-rated. Inſtead of that calm and diſpaſſionate inquiry which the importance of the ſubject demanded, we have a continued ſtrain of perſonal invective, founded almoſt wholly upon miſrepreſentation; we have arguments grounded upon mere aſſumption, and aſſertions unſupported by proof. We could ſupport this opinion by an ample detail of particulars; but the queſtion of an Union with Ireland being determined, any further diſcuſſion of its expediency is become ſuperfluous. We will, however, juſt obſerve, that a conſiderable part of this Speech is employed in arguing, that the ſettlement in 1782 was not merely final as to the point then in queſtion, but abſolutely precluded the two nations (whatever events might afterwards happen, or whatever neceſſity for a change might ariſe) from altering the ſtate of their connexion, or ſtrengthening it by the union of the two Parliaments. As a ſpecimen of the miſrepreſentations alluded to, we need only ſtate, that the Miniſter is pointedly attacked as an enemy to the conſtitution of Ireland, becauſe he has propoſed (and propoſed to the free aſſent of both kingdoms) to unite a very conſiderable and important part of its legiſlature with that of Great Britain. As an inſtance of unwarranted aſſumption, it will be ſufficient to ſay, that almoſt every argument is grounded on the ſuppoſition that an Union muſt neceſſarily ſubvert the freedom, and annihilate the independence of Ireland. Can it be neceſſary, at this period, to refer to the many able publications by which arguments of this kind have (if we do not greatly miſtake) been completely overthrown?

The ſtyle of this Speech is, in our opinion, not much ſuperior to the matter. In his attempts at energy, the ſpeaker (or writer) is frequently harſh and abrupt, and ſometimes turgid. Many of the expreſſions are indeed wholly unwarranted by propriety, and offenſive to good taſte. We cannot recollect having heard (in England at leaſt) of a kingdom "claiming to be legiſlated"; of "a finality being impoſed upon two nations"; of "the language of a Miniſter's ſword"; of "a doctrine taking its bloody ſtation in the pages of a Miniſter"; or of that Miniſter "diſporting in the regions of Tearian imagination". Expreſſions like theſe encounter us in almoſt every page. Whatever the political tranſgreſſions of this gentleman may be, they cannot (if this Speech be genuine) exceed his offences againſt good ſenſe, good taſte, and the purity of the Engliſh language.

ART.

ART. 39. *Speech of Lord Hawkeſbury in the Houſe of Commons, Friday, April* 25, 1800, *on the Incorporation of the Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland.* 8vo. 34 pp. Wright. 1800.

Mr. Grey had moved, "that it be an inſtruction to the Committee appointed to conſider of his Majeſty's Meſſage reſpecting the Union between Great Britain and Ireland, to take into their conſideration the moſt effectual means of providing for and ſecuring the independence of Parliament." His declared intention, had this motion been carried, was, to propoſe that "only 85 members ſhould be received from Ireland, and that 40 of the moſt decayed boroughs in this country ſhould be disfranchiſed." The object of this propoſal, if we are rightly informed, was, to prevent any danger to the conſtitution or independence of Parliament that might ariſe from the influx of 100 new members, and at the ſame time effect a temperate reform by diminiſhing the number of thoſe members who are choſen by the leaſt popular mode of election. This ſcheme, however ſpecious in appearance, is combated on very ſtrong grounds in the Speech before us, which points out the danger of innovating on the preſent conſtitution of the Legiſlature further than neceſſity requires, and ſhows that by the mode adopted, of retaining only ſuch Iriſh members as are choſen for counties and principal towns, an addition will be made to that part of the repreſentative body, the increaſe of which was the meaſure moſt approved by the temperate and reſpectable advocates of reform, and leaſt objected to by the opponents of that meaſure. To thoſe who know the character and abilities of the noble ſpeaker, we need not add, that this Speech is eminent for good ſenſe and perſpicuity, that it breathes a truly conſtitutional ſpirit, and that it is animated and energetic, yet candid and temperate.

ART. 40. *Practical Obſervations on the propoſed Treaty of Union of the Legiſlatures of Great Britain and Ireland; ſhewing, in ſome Particulars, how that Treaty may be rendered acceptable to the People of Ireland, and beneficial to the Britiſh Empire in General. By John Gray, LL.D.* 8vo. 104 pp. 2s. 6d. Becket. 1800.

In the propoſed treaty of Union between Great Britain and Ireland, "two points," ſays Dr. Gray, "are more particularly to be attended to; firſt, to render it ſuch a connexion as may give an increaſe of ſtrength to the joint government of both iſlands; and, ſecondly, to render it ſuch a connexion as may advance the proſperity of the inhabitants of Ireland in particular, by preventing too great a portion of their induſtry from being drawn to the centre of government." Theſe eſſential points, he conceives, can alone be obtained by a parity of taxation in both iſlands, as well as a parity of privileges. To eſtabliſh the former, he propoſes that Ireland ſhould be ſubjected to a land-tax at the ſame rate as that of England. This mode of taxation he conſiders as the natural ſource of ſupply, the owners of land being the perſons conſtitutionally bound to be the defenders of the ſtate. The

above principle, which was aſſerted in a former work of the ſame writer, called "The Eſſential Principles of the Wealth of Nations, illuſtrated in Oppoſition to ſome falſe Doctrines of Dr. Adam Smith and others," is ſtrenuouſly urged in the tract before us. The author objects ſtrongly to the preſent mode of aſſeſſing the land-tax in Great Britain, as "eſtabliſhing a fixed aſſeſſment upon a capital continually varying." He approves of the tax upon income, as the faireſt that has yet been deviſed, but thinks the diſcovery of perſonal property would not be neceſſary, if real property were "accurately aſcertained, and proportionally aſſeſſed," and that "the aſcertainment of this ſpecies of increaſe ought to be one of the ſtipulations of a treaty of Union." For the mode of carrying this ſuggeſtion into effect, and the reaſons by which it is ſupported, we muſt refer to the work itſelf; which, though it contains ſome ſingular notions on the ſubject of finance, and ſome ſchemes reſpecting the Union, that cannot eaſily be reduced to practice, is well worthy of attention, as the fruit of an inquiſitive and well-informed mind, and obviouſly dictated by public-ſpirited motives.

ART. 41. *Union, Proſperity, and Aggrandizement.* 8vo. 88 pp. 2s. Wright. 1800.

Many of the principal motives for an Union of Ireland with Great Britain, are urged with great ſtrength of reaſoning in this anonymous tract. The ſituation of the Roman Catholics in the former kingdom, while it was governed by a ſeparate and (as this writer terms it) an Oligarchic Legiſlature, is painted in high, perhaps rather too high, colours; in order to ſhow how much it would be improved by an Union, though the Catholics ſhould not obtain the privilege of ſitting in Parliament. All the indulgencies they have obtained of late, it is ſhown, have ariſen from the lenity of *Britiſh* counſels; and it is truly affirmed, that "the intereſt of the Imperial Government will be the ſame with reſpect to Ireland as to any other portion of the empire." Several appoſite inſtances are brought, which evince the liberal conduct of Great Britain towards every part of her dominions, whoſe intereſt ſhe can promote. Some of Mr. Grattan's arguments againſt an Union are alſo treated with ſevere, but juſt ridicule; particularly that figure of ſpeech by which he repreſents "the ocean proteſting againſt ſeparation, but the ſea proteſting againſt Union." We regret that the limits we have been obliged to preſcribe to ourſelves, do not admit of our detailing the reaſonings of this ſpirited and ſenſible writer; who is, we think, peculiarly happy in his anſwer to the trite objection, "that the number of Iriſh abſentees will be increaſed by an Union," and in his deſcription of the conſequences that would follow a ſucceſsful rebellion in Ireland, even to the rebels themſelves. The concluding paragraph appears to us equally animated and juſt.

ART.

ART. 42. *Congreſs at Raſtadt. Official Correſpondence between his Excellency Count Metternich, Miniſter Plenipotentiary of the Emperor, the Deputies of the Empire, and Citizens Treilhard, Bonnier, Roberjot, and Jean de Bry, Miniſters Plenipotentiary of the French Republic, aſſembled at Raſtadt for the Purpoſe of negotiating a Peace between theſe Powers; containing the Whole of the State-Papers, from the Commencement of the Negotiation in December, 1797, to April, 1799, the Period of its Diſſolution. From the Original Papers; with an Engliſh Tranſlation.* 8vo. 7s. 6d. Wright. 1800.

If any thing were neceſſary to encreaſe our diſguſt againſt Jacobiniſm, it were only to contraſt, in theſe Papers, the dignified urbanity of the Imperial Miniſter on the one hand, with the rude, inſolent, and ſometimes vulgar pertinacity, of the republican agents on the other. Theſe Papers are highly curious and important; of their authenticity there cannot be the ſmalleſt queſtion, indeed we know them to be genuine. It is nevertheleſs much to be regretted, that they were allowed thus to appear before the public, without one word of preface or introduction of any kind. There is merely a table of Contents, and the Papers are then introduced according to their date. The French is printed on one ſide, and the Engliſh on the other.

MISCELLANIES.

ART. 43. *A Letter to the Honourable and Right Reverend the Lord Biſhop of Durham, on the Slave-Trade: to which are added, Obſervations on the late Parliamentary Debate on that Subject. By the Rev. Percival Stockdale, Vicar of Leſbury and Longhoughton, in the County of Northumberland.* 8vo. 40 pp. 1s. Clarke. 1799.

When a writer boaſts of his attachment to Chriſtianity, and reprobates any national practice as inconſiſtent with it, we are naturally led to hope that the ſpirit of that religion will be found in his work. How the diſpoſition to captiouſneſs, which (in our opinion) this Letter manifeſts, and the tone of inſult which it breathes, can be reconciled to that ſpirit, we leave to the author to explain. It is neceſſary to inform our readers (ſince the title-page would not lead them to ſuch a ſuppoſition) that Mr. S. objects to the Sermon preached by the Biſhop of Durham, on the Faſt-Day laſt year, not for any topic or ſentiment it actually does contain, but becauſe a topic which, in Mr. S.'s opinion, ought to have been diſcuſſed on that occaſion, was not introduced. According to this mode, every Prelate, or Divine, appointed to preach on a ſolemn occaſion, is to chooſe his ſubject, not according to his own judgment, but that of Mr. Percival Stockdale. We are not greater friends to the ſlave-trade than this loud and violent declaimer againſt it; but ſurely it is not very candid to infer that the heads of our Church are favourers of that traffic, or that they are lukewarm in the diſcharge of their duty, becauſe they do not take

every

every opportunity, fit or unfit, of inveighing againſt it. The language of this Letter is, we are concerned to add, ſtill more objectionable than the matter. It is highly illiberal, and gives too much ground for the imputation on the writer's motives, which is thrown out in the tract which we ſhall next have occaſion to notice. Mr. S.'s Obſervations (ſubjoined to his Letter) on the parliamentary debate on the ſlave-trade, are neither diſtinguiſhed by ingenuity nor eloquence. They conſiſt chiefly of perſonal ſarcaſms, conveyed in a ſtyle of coarſe vehemence and vague declamation.

ART. 44. *A Letter to the Rev. Percival Stockdale, Vicar of Leſbury and Longhoughton, in the County of Northumberland; in Conſequence of his late Letter, addreſſed to the Honourable and Right Reverend the Lord Biſhop of Durham, &c.* 8vo. 34 pp. 6d. No Publiſher's Name.

The writer of this Letter joins heartily with Mr. Stockdale in reprobating the ſlave-trade, but juſtifies the omiſſion of it in the Biſhop of Durham's Faſt Sermon, by ſtating what appears to have been the object of that diſcourſe. "His Sermon," ſays this writer, "attacks principles. He lops not off the branches, but lays his axe to the *root* of our corruption." The writer proceeds to characterize the Sermon, and ſtate the principal topics it contains; which fully juſtifies the very reſpectable Prelate againſt the inſinuation of Mr. Stockdale, that it "conſiſts of indefinite and vague declamation, trite and general ſtrictures, and common places." He proceeds to cenſure Mr. S.'s Letter for "the tireſome verbiage, the groſs abuſe, the offenſive egotiſm, the illiberal inſinuations, &c. &c. which it contains." He alſo objects to ſome of the author's expreſſions reſpecting Chriſtianity, ſuch as calling it a *ſyſtem* and a *theory*. Mr. Stockdale's own Sermons, and his ambition of literary fame, do not eſcape reprehenſion; and a correſpondence of his with the Biſhop of Durham (publiſhed originally by Mr. S. himſelf) is, in part, reprinted in a note; which affords ſtrong grounds for the imputation, that Mr. Stockdale's attack on his Dioceſan was dictated by motives very different from that of zeal againſt the ſlave-trade, or an attachment to the intereſts of religion.

ART. 45. *The Layman's Addreſs to the Clergy of England; humbly ſubmitted to the peruſal of every Gentleman in the Kingdom. By a Friend to the Church Eſtabliſhment.* 8vo. 31 pp. 1s. Dilly. 1798.

After ſome good preliminary remarks, the author comes to the proper topics of his Addreſs; namely, 1ſt. Non-reſidence, which he contends is "too general, and totally indefenſible," except in very urgent caſes. 2d. The want of reſident curates. 3d. Their very inadequate ſtipends. 4th. The incompatibility of any other active clerical engagement with the duties of a biſhoprick. 5th. The inconvenience of tranſlations. 6th. The detriment to parſonages and glebes by the removal of incumbents from one *chapter* living to another. 7th. The application of ſinecure livings to the augmentation of ſmall ones with cure. 8th. The vacating of fellowſhips on being preſented to livings. All theſe, and ſome other matters, are diſcuſſed with much zeal and freedom,

freedom, but with ſtrong, and apparently ſincere profeſſions of friendſhip towards the church. If this friendſhip were more queſtionable than it is, yet the clergy might read theſe admonitions with advantage, and wiſely be willing "ab hoſte doceri." We muſt ſet the author right in one point, "Let it be recommended to the Governors of Queen Anne's Bounty, not to be ſo very tenacious of their fund; I mean, let them not ſtart ſo many objections to the lands which are pointed out by the incumbents, as conducive to the end in view. This circumſtance alone has prevented many applications." P. 17. Some of the clergy have been very much benefited by purchaſes of this kind, and have met with no *unneceſſary* objections. The *titles* to eſtates occaſion the chief difficulty. They are referred to the Governors' counſel; who examines them, as he ought, very minutely, and takes nothing upon truſt. The other officers are laudably attentive to the diſpatch of this buſineſs; and the delays, which often occur, are uſually imputable (we believe) to attornies in the country.

ART. 46. *Obſervations on the Signs and Duties of the preſent Times: with ſome Account of a Society of Clergymen in London, who have agreed to preach in Rotation weekly Lectures in each other's Churches and Chapels, on this important Subject: and a Summary of their Views and Endeavours to excite a Spirit of Prayer, and of Exertion to promote vital Goodneſs at this alarming Period. Drawn up by the Deſire of the Society, and publiſhed with their Approbation. By Thomas Scott, Chaplain to the Lock-Hoſpital.* 8vo. 46 pp. 6d. Matthews, &c. 1799.

The circumſtance, announced in the title-page, of clergymen preaching in *each other's* churches and chapels (excluding always "the ſtated paſtor," p. 10) did not prepoſſeſs us in favour of ſuch a ſociety. This ſtudied *variety* of inſtructors, ſeems calculated to gratify "itching ears." But we were ſoon induced to overlook ſuch a circumſtance, by the marks of fervent and ſound piety which abound in this tract. The deſigns of the ſociety, the tendency of their proceedings, and the ſubſtance of their prayers (of which a ſpecimen is exhibited, p. 42) are all perfectly unexceptionable and commendable. The ſigns of the times are noted, not "in order to engage men in political diſcuſſions, but to excite them to perform their ſeveral duties, according to the emergency of the caſe." P. 5. The citations from ſcripture are not more numerous, than they are apt and proper. A very creditable ſpecimen of this work might be produced from p. 16, if our limits would permit.

ART. 47. *Select Eulogies of Members of the French Academy, with Notes. By the late M. D'Alembert. Tranſlated from the French, with a Preface, and additional Notes. By J. Aikin, M. D. Two Volumes.* 8vo. 10s. Cadell and Davies.

We ſhould have thought this work beneath Dr. Aikin's abilities, and indeed we are much inclined to think ſo ſtill. The few ſcattered facts

which are related in theſe Eulogies, are beyond all doubt acceptable, and of importance to the general cauſe of ſcience. But French eulogy deals very little in matters of fact; we mean, that it is ſo apt to wander in the fields of imagination, that it is more apt to reſemble poetry than proſe. The original work conſiſts of four large octavo volumes, from which Dr. Aikin has certainly made a very judicious ſelection from an author certainly of much merit; but who, as the tranſlator confeſſes, "is prolix in his ſtyle, and often employs a profuſion of words and images, by which his meaning is rather weakened than enforced."

ART. 48. *Journal of a Voyage performed in the Lion extra Indiaman, from Madras to Columbo and Da Lagoa Bay, on the eaſtern Coaſt of Africa, where the Ship was condemned in the Year* 1798; *with ſome Account of the Manners and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants of Da Lagoa Bay, and a Vocabulary of the Language. By William White, Eſq. Captain in the* 73*d Highland Regiment of Foot. Embelliſhed with Plates.* 4to. 7s. Stockdale. 1800.

We are always pleaſed with ſuch productions as this, for though perhaps in themſelves of no very high importance, yet the aggregate of many, greatly tends to increaſe our ſtock of geographical knowledge, ſomething being added from each to our ſtock of information. The more curious and intereſting part of this publication, is that which relates to Da Lagoa Bay, and the author's account of the cuſtoms and manners of the people is very entertaining. The plates are very indifferently executed.

ART. 49. *Angling in all its Branches reduced to a complete Science, being the Reſult of more than Forty Years real Practice and ſtrict Obſervation throughout the Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland. In Three Parts. The Whole forming a Work of real Utility; compriſing Objects too numerous to be detailed in a Title-Page, and of a very different Nature from thoſe little inſignificant Pamphlets hitherto publiſhed, which treat chiefly of angling in the Thames, the New River, and other Waters of* equal Conſequence *about London. By Samuel Taylor, Gent.* 8vo. 5s. Longman and Rees. 1800.

The only objection to this entertaining publication ſeems to be its title-page, which favours too much of empiriciſm; in other reſpects it ſeems ſuperior to every book of the kind which has appeared ſince the time of honeſt Iſaac Walton. The firſt Part deſcribes the counties of England, Wales, and Scotland, with their rivers and waters, and fiſh which theſe produce. In ſpeaking of Norfolk, the author commends its Perch, which he reaſonably may; but he makes no mention of the Broads, which are large lakes, containing the greateſt variety of fiſh, and probably the fineſt Perch in England. The ſecond Part deſcribes fiſh generally, their natures, haunts, baits, &c. &c. The third Part treats wholly of Fly-fiſhing, and contains many curious obſervations. We may properly recommend the performance to all lovers of the art of angling; but we wonder that the author did not

not avail himſelf of the preſent ſtate of the art of engraving in wood, to give ſome repreſentation of fiſh, flies, nets, &c. in the manner of Iſaac Walton's book. We adviſe this to be done as an ornamental improvement to ſome future edition. The book is dedicated, by permiſſion, to Lord Dundas, who it ſeems is an experienced brother of the craft.

ART. 50. *The Engliſh Enchiridion, being a Selection of Apophthegms, moral Maxims, &c. By John Feltham.* 12mo. 125 pp. Cruttwell, Bath; Dilly, London. 1799.

A ſet of maxims, ſelected from various authors, ancient and modern, with ſome that are original. The Maxims are 260 in number. Then follow Aphoriſms from Lord Bacon, Lavater, Rochefoucault, Guiccardini, in diſtinct collections from each. Many uſeful ideas may certainly be gleaned from ſuch a manual; but the greateſt care is neceſſary in the ſelection, not to pick up weeds inſtead of flowers. In this Mr. Feltham has been tolerably ſucceſsful. His title-page gives *Apothegms*, inſtead of Apophthegms.

ART. 51. *A Treatiſe upon Lime conſidered as a Cement, and alſo as a Manure.* 8vo. 27 pp. 1s. Jardine, Edinburgh. 1799.

This Treatiſe is intended for the uſe of "gentlemen who have made chemiſtry a branch of ornamental education, and who, in its application, may find from it ſome amuſement in the improvement of their eſtates and country reſidences." P. 2. The author propoſes to make "lime as a manure in agriculture, as well as a cement in building, better underſtood, and conſequently more uſefully employed than it has hitherto been." P. 5. Firſt, he conſiders it as a cement in building. Under this head, builders, as well as gentlemen, will find ſome uſeful ſuggeſtions concerning "the preparation of lime intended as plaſter for the walls of houſes." P. 27. And concerning the ſafeſt and beſt mode of *drying* them; which is maintained to be, "the introduction of a free circulation of atmoſpheric air." Lime, as a manure, is ſaid to produce its good effects by diſpoſing the ſoil to fertilize itſelf by a decompoſition of atmoſpheric air. The principal objection to lime as a manure, namely, its propenſity to concrete, is obviated by throwing it upon a well-prepared ſoil in a calcined powder. The Treatiſe concludes "with an obſervation upon the medical effects of carbon, as uſed under the title of Æriated Water, in the removal of the ſtone." P. 25. Whatever may be the fate of the author's theory, it is ingenious, and deſerving of attention.

ART. 52. *Extract of a Journal of a Second Tour from London through the Highlands of Scotland, and the North-Weſtern Parts of England; with Obſervations and Remarks. By Rowland Hill, A. M. late of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Miniſter of Surry Chapel.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Williams. 1800.

Our readers are doubtleſs acquainted with the zeal and enthuſiaſm which diſtinguiſh the writings of Mr. Rowland Hill. This Journal

relates where he preached, and what he obſerved in a Tour through the Highlands, and will be acceptable to thoſe who can read with ſatisfaction the ſimilar productions of Meſſrs. Whitfield and Weſley.

ART. 53. *Hiſtory of the Campaign of Count Alexander Suworow Rymnikſi, Field-Marſhal General in the Service of his Imperial Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias; with a Preliminary Sketch of his Private Life and Character. Tranſlated from the German of Frederick Authing. Two Vols.* 8vo. 12s. Wright. 1799.

This illuſtrious warrior has at length paid the debt of nature; and painful as it muſt be to review ſcenes of devaſtation, terror, and bloodſhed, it is impoſſible not to acknowledge and admire ſagacity, intrepidity, and every military virtue, almoſt beyond example. Of courſe, the aſtoniſhing Campaign of this great General in Italy is not recorded; that muſt be left to ſome future hiſtorian; but a clear and ſatisfactory account of his life and ſervices previous to that period, are here detailed with great perſpicuity, energy, and it may be ſaid with elegance. The Tranſlation is exceedingly happy; and the book altogether is a curious and important addition, not only to military libraries, but to every collection of which modern hiſtory is a part. A head is prefixed, from an engraving of a pupil of Bartolozzi. We wiſh it had been by Bartolozzi himſelf.

ART. 54. *The Union Dictionary, containing all that is truly uſeful in the Dictionaries of Johnſon, Sheridan, and Walker, the Orthography and explanatory Matter ſelected from Dr. Johnſon, the Pronunciation adjuſted according to Mr. Walker, with the Addition of Mr. Sheridan's Pronunciation of thoſe Words wherein theſe Two eminent Orthoëpiſts differ. The Whole deſigned to preſent to the Reader, at one View, the Orthography, Explanation, Pronunciation, and Accentuation, of all the pureſt and moſt approved Terms in the Engliſh Language. By Thomas Browne, A. M. Author of a new Claſſical Dictionary, Viridarium Poeticum, &c.* 8vo. 8s. Wilkie, &c. 1800.

The letter in which this Dictionary is printed, by its extreme neatneſs, has enabled the compiler to compreſs a vaſt deal into a very ſmall compaſs. Beſides fulfilling, with apparent care, the promiſe of his title-page, Mr. Browne has ſubjoined to each word the name of ſome eminent author, who has been quoted elſewhere as authority for its uſe. The publication is undoubtedly cheap and convenient.

ART. 55. *Addreſs to the Town-Council of Edinburgh. By Thomas Smith, Eſq. One of the preſent Old Bailies; delivered in his Place at the Council Table, on Friday, September 27, 1799, at chooſing the Leets for new Magiſtrates; containing ſome Account of the City's Affairs—its Debts, Revenue, Expenditure, &c.* 8vo. 62 pp. Mundell and Son, Edinburgh; Longman and Rees, London. 1799.

This publication, relating ſolely to the financial concerns and adminiſtration of the city of Edinburgh, is ſufficiently characterized by the title-page.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN CATALOGUE.

FRANCE.

ART. 56. *Lycée* où *Cours de littérature ancienne et moderne. Par* J. F. Laharpe. Paris.

We ſhould have been more ſatisfied if this work had borne the following title: *Mélanges de littérature et de critique, rangés dans un ordre à peu près chronologique depuis* Homère *juſqu'à nos jours.*

The author, in a ſhort Preface, informs us that his book will conſiſt of *twelve volumes* (*ſeven* have only yet appeared) and of *three ſupplementary volumes*, which are intended to treat *de da Philoſophie du dix-huitième ſiècle.* He likewiſe tells us, that it is *la première fois, ſoit en France, ſoit même en Europe, qu'on offre au public une hiſtoire raiſonnée de tous les arts de l'eſprit et de l'imagination depuis* Homère *juſqu'à nos jours.* He has then forgotten the *Hiſtoire de l'eſprit humain*, in 14 vols, by the Marquis *d'Argens*; the *Conſidérations ſur les revolution des arts*, by the Ch. *de Méhégan*; the *Eſſai ſur l'hiſtoire des belles-lettres, des ſciences, et des arts*, in 4 vols, by *Juvenel de Carlencas*, not to mention the 50 volumes by F. *Niceron*, of *Mémoires pour ſervir à l'hiſtoire des hommes illuſtres dans la republique des lettres*, &c. The Italians have alſo the *Courſe* of the Abbé *Andrès*, in 5 vols, 4to. which they eſteem very highly, and which is entitled, *Dele' origine, progreſſo e ſtato preſente della letteratura*; and one, on a leſs extenſive plan, by *Denina*, with the title of *Rivoluzioni della letteratura antica e moderna*; as the Germans alſo, beſides the *Conſpectus reipublicæ literariæ*, of *Heumana*—the work on the ſame object by *Dahler*—that of *Mertens*—the *Onomaſticon* of *Saxius*,—have long been in poſſeſſion of the celebrated *Polyhiſtor* of *Morhoff.*

The *three firſt volumes* are unequally divided into *three Books*, comprizing whatever the author ſays reſpecting the ancients. In the *firſt* he treats of *Poetry*, in the *ſecond* of *Eloquence*, in the *third* of *Hiſtory*, *Philoſophy*, and *Miſcellaneous Literature.*

Of the Introduction, the title is, *Notions générales ſur l'art d'écrire, ſur la réalité et la néceſſité de cet art, ſur la nature des préceptes, ſur l'alliance de la philoſophie et des arts de l'imagination, ſur l'acception des mots de gout et de génie*; all which important objects, which may be ſaid properly to belong to the *Introduction* to a *Courſe of Literature*, are diſpatched by Mr. *Lah.* in 46 pages only. He begins by aſſerting, that *Les modèles en tout genre ont dévancé les préceptes....Des eſprits obſervateurs en voyant ce qu'on avoit fait, ont dit aux autres hommes, voilà ce qu'il faut faire: la poëſie et l'éloquence ont précédé la poëtique et la rhétorique.* That is to ſay, *Ariſtotle* had not written his *Poëtic* till after *Homer*, *Æſchylus*, *Sophocles*, &c. had produced their poems. But can a *Poëtic* exiſt only when it is *written?* Are not the rules which the didactic author reduces into order, the ſame which have guided the artiſt in the compoſition of his work? Was it then without the aſſiſtance of *precepts* that *Homer* wrote his two inimitable epic poems; and did not theſe precepts exiſt, till, ſeveral centuries afterwards, *Ariſtotle* had, in a book, pointed out the rules to be obſerved, in order that an epic poem might be as

perfect

perfect as poſſible? And were not theſe rules to be found *à priori* in the mind of *Homer?*

The *firſt book*, which treats of *Poetry*, begins (Chap. I.) with an analyſis of the *Poëtic* of *Ariſtotle*. Here, at leaſt, the author did not think that *the models ought to go before the precepts.*

The *ſecond chapter* preſents likewiſe an analyſis of the *Treatiſe on the Sublime* of *Longinus*. We do not perfectly underſtand why the author ſhould paſs thus rapidly from the precepts of Alexander to *Longinus*, who lived under Auguſtus. What is ſtill more extraordinary, M. *de Lah.* is perfectly ſilent on the ſubject of Horace's *Art of Poetry*; a ſingular omiſſion, if we conſider the importance of the work, a commentary on which would itſelf form a complete Courſe of Literature. Mr. *de Lah.* refutes all the definitions of the ſublime which have hitherto been given by different authors, without ſubſtituting any other in their place.

We now are made to paſs, without knowing well how, to a chapter *ſur la langue Françaiſe comparée aux langues anciennes.* In this part there are ſome good and ſome new things; but the good are not new, and the new are not good. Much time is employed in conſidering the opinion of the poet *du Belloy*, at preſent forgotten and of little conſequence, who profeſſed to prefer the French to the ancient languages.

In the ſame manner, in treating of the *Iliad* and the *Odyſſey*, chapter iv, ſect. i, Mr. *de Lah.* is more occupied with *Lamotte* and Mme. *Dacier*, than with *Homer* himſelf. The ſame may be obſerved with reſpect to the *Enëid* and the *Pharſalia*, in the ſecond ſection of the ſame chapter. An *Appendix*, of eight or ten pages, is intended to make the reader acquainted with *Heſiod*, *Ovid*, *Lucretius*, *Manilius*, and *Apollonius Rhodius*, who, as a ſpecimen of the author's mode of arranging his materials, are treated of in the order in which we have here placed them.

Being now arrived at the *Theatre des Grecs*, we have, of courſe, nothing further to expect relative to the ſubjects that have preceded, ſo that we ſhall know nothing of the Continuator of Homer, *Quintus Smyrnaeus*, nothing of *Empedocles*, *Theognis*, *Lycophron*, &c. Though Mr. *de Lah.* may be ſaid to be here in his proper element, it does not, however, appear that he has endeavoured to fix the ideas of his readers in regard to the fundamental principles of the dramatic art, or a ſatisfactory theory of Tragedy, &c. but that we muſt here likewiſe content ourſelves with fragments. The hiſtory of the Theatre, if it can be ſaid to deſerve that name, commences with *Eſchylus*; and of the three famous tragedians of Athens, the author not only owns, but likewiſe, in our opinion, juſtifies his predilection for *Sophocles*. It muſt be allowed that there are in the 180 pages, which treat of the Greek tragedy, ſome excellent critiques, and compariſons (as, for inſtance, of the *Edipus* of *Sophocles* with that of *Voltaire*) of paſſages and entire ſcenes tranſlated into verſe by Mr. *de Lah.* and which we have read with much pleaſure.

To the ſixth chapter, forming 86 pages, we have to object ſimilar defects to thoſe which we have already ſtated, with fewer ſpecimens of beauty and ſound criticiſm. The delicate taſte of the Pariſian will not accommodate itſelf to the Attic ſalt, perhaps, indeed, ſometimes rather

rather coarſe, with which *Ariſtophanes* ſo much abounds, and Mr. *de Lah.* ſeems ſtill reſolved not to do him juſtice. He cannot pardon the ancients for being *too ancient*.

Nor is the Profeſſor of the Lycéum more favourable to *Plautus* than to *Ariſtophanes*. He allows to *Plautus* only *un fonds de comique dans quelques ſituations, de la gaiété dans quelques ſcenes, enfin un caractère* (l'avare). He is, however, a great admirer of *Terence*, to whom he renders abundant juſtice.

Next follows a very weak chapter, the ſeventh, on *lyric Poetry*, and the *ancient lyric Poets*, with ſome Odes of *Horace*, tranſlated, or rather imitated, by the author; then *paſtoral Poetry*, and the *Apologue*. Theſe important articles are diſcuſſed in ten pages. The ninth chapter, which treats of the *Ancient Satire*, preſents a very able vindication of *Horace* againſt *Duſaulx*, one of the moſt approved of the French tranſlators, and the apologiſt of *Juvenal*. Laſtly, after having ſpoken of *Perſius* and *Petronius*, of the *Epigram*, of the Elegy, and of *Erotic Poetry*, Mr. *de Lah.* proceeds to the *ſecond Book*, which treats *de l'Eloquence chez les anciens*. What has been obſerved, in general, of the *firſt Book*, will be found equally applicable to this, in which we have an Analyſis of the Inſtitutions of *Quintilian*, which will not be read without pleaſure and advantage; a critical and hiſtorical view of the works of *Demoſthenes* and of *Cicero*, who is by our author preferred to the Greek Orator; an Analyſis of his rhetorical works; a ſhort and very unſatisfactory diſſertation *ſur la difference de caractère entre l'éloquence de* Démoſthènes *et celle de* Cicéron, *et des rapports de l'une et de l'autre avec le peuple d'Athènes et celui de Rome;* laſtly, an *Appendix*, read at the *Ecoles normales*, in 1794, *ſur l'éloquence ancienne, ſur l'érudition des* xiv, xv, *et* xvi *ſiécles, ſur le Dialogue de* Tacite, de cauſis corruptæ Eloquentiæ, &c. In this *hors-d'œuvre* we have ſome account of *Dante, Boccace, Petrarc, Sannazars, Cervantes, Amyot, Montaigne, Racine, Boileau*, of the *Ariſtocrats*, and of the *Rights of Man*, all under the head of the Eloquence of the Ancients. The laſt chapter of this book, which contains five chapters, has for its title, *Des deux Pline*. The younger *Pliny* has indeed compoſed a panegyric of Trajan, of which we are here preſented with an extract; but we do not ſee how his letter can be ſaid to appertain to a book on the ſubject of Eloquence, and ſtill much leſs how the Latin hiſtoriographer of Nature ſhould find a place here. Mr. *de Lah.* informs us, that it is becauſe *il y a de l'éloquence dans ſon ſtyle*, which would equally entitle all good writers to a place in a chapter on Eloquence.

The *third* and laſt *Book* is entitled, *Hiſtoire, philoſophie, et littérature mêlée*. To comprize ſo many important objects, this book is not of more than half the length of the other two. *Hiſtory* occupies 68 of theſe pages, which are by far the moſt valuable in the book. With reſpect to the remaining 350 on *Philoſophy*, it would be extremely difficult to conceive any thing more ſuperficial, or leſs inſtructive. The diviſions are, *Plato, Plutarch, Cicero, Seneca;* whilſt nothing is ſaid of *Pherecydes, Pythagoras, Democritus, Epicurus, Socrates, Plato, Ariſtotle, Pyrrho*, &c. The chapter, appropriated to the *Littérature mêlée*, conſiſts of 14 pages only. *Spectat. du Nord.*

ACKNOW-

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Philo Puff's Letter is dated Oxford; but we have not been accuſtomed to receive from that place ſuch nonſenſical impertinence.

Philo's Letter is of a different deſcription, and deſerves our thanks. The particularity which he requires hardly ſeems neceſſary.

We much approve of *Mr. Comber's* idea, and would willingly give every poſſible aid to ſo meritorious an undertaking as that which he recommends.

The work after which *H. L. H.* kindly enquires, will appear, as we are informed, in a very ſhort period.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

A new edition of that very ſcarce book, *Willis's Survey of St. Aſaph*, is in the preſs, and nearly ready for publication. It is brought down to the preſent period, with an account of the Incumbents of each Pariſh.

The ſame editor, the *Rev. E. Edwards*, of Wrexham, is alſo preparing a new edition of *Willis's* Account of *Bangor*, upon the ſame plan.

A work, entitled the *Modern Land Steward*, by the author of the Farmer's Calendar, is in hand.

Lord Somerville is employed in arranging ſome important obſervations on ſheep and wool, made by his Lordſhip during his reſidence in Portugal. The work, including other ſubjects of national importance, will extend to a quarto volume.

The Poet Laureat, whoſe elegant pen ſeems alſo indefatigable, has nearly completed an Heroic Poem on the ſubject of *Alfred*.

Mr. Moſer, who has often entertained the public in a ſimilar manner, has five volumes of *Moral Tales* in the preſs.

The author of the *Baviad*, we underſtand, has "*a Rod in Pickle*", for the writer who calls himſelf *Peter Pindar*.

The Poetry of the *Anti-Jacobin*, which, though often reprinted, is ſtill an object of public curioſity, will ſoon be republiſhed by *Wright*, in a very elegant form, with a ſeries of engravings, illuſtrative, humourous, and ſatirical.

ERRATA.

In our laſt, p. 493, for *religio* read *rubigo*.
502 — *allowed* — *allayed*,
ib. — *doctrine* — *diction*,

AN

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TO THE

REMARKABLE PASSAGES

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